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ABSTRACT

Practices and patterns in teacher education were explored at this meeting. Speeches are reprinted in this report on the following subjects: (1) the nature of educational alternatives; (2) the need for quality education for children of every race; (3) training programs designed for a varied group of professionals within a community of service-related professionals; (4) the importance of theory and practice in teacher education with emphasis upon the kinds of theory and their implications; (5) the issues of research, evaluation, and the knowledge base in teacher education; and (6) possible components of instructional settings in the future and the training of teachers for these situations. (JD)

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ALTERNATIVES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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Julian Bond
Virginia Smith
James D. Raths
George Denemark
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FOREWORD

The theme of the 1977 Association of Teacher Educators conference, "Alternatives in Teacher Education Programs" intended to explore a kaleidoscope of promising practices and patterns in both preservice and inservice teacher education.

The Distinguished Achievement Award address, given by Margaret Lindsey, conceptualized the nature of promising alternatives. Her purpose was to create a motivating and searching tone for the conference and to clarify both the central theme and the major topics. In addition, Dr. Lindsey synthesized the concepts presented in the major presentations by describing the education of teacher educators for the new roles implied in the alternative teacher education settings.

Julian Bond presented a challenge to teacher educators by emphasizing the need for equity for every child. Virginia Smith discussed training programs designed for a varied group of professionals within a community of service-related professionals. James Raths addressed the importance of theory and practice in teacher education with emphasis upon the kinds of theory and their implications. The issues of research, evaluation, and the knowledsge base in teacher education were illuminated by George Denemark. Joel Burdin focused on possible components of instructional settings in the future and on the training of teachers for these situations.

The foregoing articles, while different, present many similar perspectives in the need to be concerned about alternatives in teacher education programs for the future.

Dr. Lindsey is a graduate of Shippensburg State College and Pennsylvania State University. She received her doctorate from Columbia University and holds an honorary Doctor of Letters from Eastern Kentucky University. Dr. Lindsey has long been a senior Professor in Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. She is the author, co-author and editor of a multitude of publications relating to Teacher Education including "The Professional Education of Teachers." Some of her most notable efforts have related to supervision. She is a nationally acclaimed distinguished lecturer and consultant.

ALTERNATIVES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Margaret Lindsey

Teachers College, Columbia University

Just thirty years ago the Association for Student Teaching,[1] the antecedent of this Association, was significantly involved in the revision of what was called Standard Six. Some of you will recall that at that time the American Association of Teachers Colleges,[2] now the American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education, was responsible for setting and enforcing standards for the accreditation of teacher education programs.[3] A committee of AATC, called the Standards and Studies Committee, was responsible for seeing that the standards were subjected to study and that new developments of concern to teacher educators were given adequate attention in the standards.

Consistent with that obligation was the recommendation of the Standards and Studies Committee to the Association's Executive Board that a committee be organized to study that part of teacher education called student teaching and to recommend standards to be employed in evaluating student teaching programs. The committee was appointed and charged as recommended. John

Flowers, President of the Teachers College at San Marcos, Texas, chaired that committee. It is fair to say, however, that the drastically modified standards that were finally recommended by the committee and adopted by the AATC were the work of the AST's representatives on the committee.[3]

Two of those representatives were Allen Patterson, the brilliant and dedicated Executive Secretary of the AST, and Florence Stratemeyer, a past president of the AST and one who no doubt has made a greater contribution to the improvement of teacher education in America than any other single person. Serving as Research Associate, I had the rare privilege of making the national study of student teaching and, more important, working closely with those giants in the field of teacher education.

The revised standards for student teaching had an immediate impact on teacher education programs.[4] They called for major modifications. New concepts with regard to the role of field experiences in the preparation of teachers and new terminology consistent with those concepts were introduced. Thenceforth institutions would be expected to provide professional laboratory experience in schools and communities throughout the entire program of preparation. Student teaching, as one kind of laboratory experience, was to be carried on in representative (public) schools and under the joint guidance of school and college personnel. Ten years later it could be reported that a number of institutions had successfully modified parts of their programs to meet some of the new standards.[5]

To appreciate the kinds of alternatives placed before teacher educators at that time and the nature of the decisions they had to make in order to meet those standards, it must be remembered that most programs in 1945 included no field or school experiences until the senior year and at that allowed only a few weeks of perhaps one hour a day for student teaching. Furthermore, most institutions conducted a campus school, usually a quite atypical school, where student teaching was performed. Providing field experiences throughout four years of preparation, including an extensive period of fulltime student teaching in public schools, required of program designers very difficult and often painful decisions.

Difficult as those decisions were, the context in which they had to be made was simple compared with today's setting. Institutions were less complex, government intervention was almost unheard of, equal opportunity acts did not exist, teacher organizations were only beginning to flex their muscles, the job market was wide open, accountability was not on the top of anyone's agenda, colleges were in firm control, school-based personnel were not considered teacher educators, bond issues were not being voted down with regularity, and money was to be had. Moreover, the body of knowledge at hand in 1947 and the technology, instructional materials, specializations, and expertise available were a drop in the bucket compared with what wer have today. The number of relative simplicity of alternatives confronting the decision-maker in the late forties are in direct contrast to the multitude and complexity of alternatives facing us in the late seventies.

ALTERNATIVES THERE ARE

Daily we are confronted with comments, suggestions, and proposals that have within them implicit assumptions about the presence of alternatives, and often the further assumption that teacher educators should be selecting alternatives other than those they have selected. Criticism of teacher education is widespread. Proposals for improvement of programs abound. Recommendations for change are made with regularity. Pressure for experimentation persists and grows stronger all the time. "poor" quality and "good" quality are used to describe programs time after time. Criticism, improvement, change, experimentation, quality--these terms imply that known alternatives exist and should be granted more consideration than they now get.

Certain recent developments give further evidence that the possibility of alternatives is consistently recognized. The Competency-Based Teacher Education Movement that has had such impact on program designing and instructional technology, far from being monolithic as is sometimes argued, is an explicit statement of conviction that competence to teach may be achieved through a variety of programs and activities. As a strategy for curriculum designing, CBTE requires local groups to define competencies expected of their graduates, make available learning activities through which prospective teachers may be expected to acquire those competencies, and devise systematic plans for evaluating student achievement and program operation.

Clearly such a process of curriculum designing assumes that there are alternative activities from which choices can be made by both program planners and students. Whether teacher educators have studied alternatives and made deliberate choices among them in designing and conducting CBTE programs is a moot point. Nevertheless, CBTE, as a curriculum-designing strategy, assumes deliberation, examination, and choice-making among alternatives.

The notion that a group at the state level could dictate specific requirements to be met for certification gave way some time ago to the idea of program approval. Implicit in the program approval concept is an assumption of variation in program design and content, an assumption that there is no one best or proven program for the preparation of teachers. Similarly, national voluntary accrediation, designed and conducted by NCATE, encourages innovation and experimentation and employs standards that require program operators to articulate their goals, and evaluate the degree to which goals are achieved. Both program approval and certification of individuals at the state level and accreditation at the national level assume the existence of alternatives and the right of teacher educators to decide which alternatives to accept in designing their programs.

Behind the concept of academic freedom is not only a commitment to the right of academicians to make their own decisions but the assumption that there are alternatives from which they may choose. Why do professionals insist upon instructional autonomy? Because they are equipped to make decisions and judgments and therefore, require, as a condition of work, freedom to use their judgment and expertise in selecting ways of behaving, treatments to administer, or concepts to employ. What prompts educational institutions to reject out of hand real or potential interference with their curriculum and instruction? As a community of scholars, the group of professionals in charge of an institution rightly demands freedom from outside interference in decisions requiring expertise which the institutional community is responsible for furnishing. Freedom to make choices, to use expert judgment, cannot exist without the presence of alternatives.

Yes, there is evidence that both the supporters and critics of certain choices in teacher education, whether they be professionals in education or laymen, assume that program designers have alternatives from which to make choices in planning and conducting programs. This is not to say that the assumed alternative exist in the minds of the professionals or their critics in well-thought-out, viable form. This suggests a responsibility with respect to alternatives which I will deal with presently. But first, let us take a closer look at the general nature of alternatives.

THE NATURE OF ALTERNATIVES

Strictly speaking, an alternative is one of two choices available. It is illustrated by the fork in the road, where the driver in selecting one road must necessarily reject the other. But given the ribbons of concrete and the traffic circles and congestion encountered by today's driver, the notion of only two choices is often obsolete. Choices in living are seldom as simple as deciding to do this or that; they are more likely to be selections from several alternatives. In the real world of educational practice, practitioners know that usually not only two but several alternatives are available or can be devised for consideration in making decisions.

The very idea of alternatives has explicit within it a concept of decision making. The primary reason for concern with alternatives is a professional obligation for responsible decision making in planning and conducting programs.

In relatively few instances, albeit very important ones, may decisions in teacher education be deliberate choices of one out of only two possibilities--for example, the decision to prepare teachers in a four-year undergraduate program as contrasted with a decision to provide no professional preparation at the undergraduate level; a decision to close a campus school and use representative schools for professional laboratory activities; a decision to require all students to pass a written examination as a basis for certification as contrasted with successfully completing a set sequence of courses. In such instances, a decision may be to take either one position or the other. But decision making on the basis of either/or is, in terms of frequency and quality, not the most important part of the problem of selecting alternatives.

In fact, in many instances, thinking of alternatives as either/or choices is a source of continuing error in deliberations about program decisions. It is fallacious to debate behaviorism versus humanism, cognitive versus affective learning, goal-oriented versus emerging curriculum; college-based versus field-based programs, and so on.

Behaviorists who define specific objectives and provide learning opportunities for students with the intent of modifying behavior in the direction of those objectives are not necessarily rejecting humanism. Indeed, they may be basically humane persons sensitive to , accepting of, and responsive to students and colleagues with whom they work. Teacher educators who profess commitment to humanism, and sincerely attempt to behave in humane ways in all encounters with other human beings do not automatically reject all notions of changing behavior as a goal of education. For most of us, there is likely to be some behaviorism and some humanism in our choices. It is a matter of emphasis and appropriateness of decisions in given situations.

In similar fashion, the oft-debated dichotomy between cognitive and affective learning is an argument about two pure alternatives that do not in reality exist in that form. Long ago scholars in psychology made clear that much of cognition has affect and that affect can be greatly influenced by cognition. While learning to spell, a child is also developing feelings about the self, the substance, the process, and the persons related to that learning. In all likelihood, a college teacher of history is both expressing his affection and enthusiasm for the field and hoping his students will not only learn some specifics but will also acquire a liking for history and for the instructor as a teacher. It is wasteful of time and effort to treat cognitive and affective learning as though they were opposites, alternatives. It is more accurate and useful to consider the fundamental overlapping of these two in practically all dimensions of teacher education, both for program designers and operators and for students.

Some of the current discussion emanating from the debate over CBTE or from a commitment to existentialism implies a dichtomy between goal-directed and emergent program planning. Some persons would have us believe that if goals are stated in advance, the facilitator, be he teacher or program planner, automatically restricts the freedom of the student, reduces the choices in program designing or teaching. It is argued that the goal-directed teacher wears blinders and cannot see beyond the stated goals; conversely, that the non-goal-directed teacher creates conditions of inconsistency, poor management, and confusion. But decisions by teacher educators are not void of direction; they are not without reference to ends in view, or goals. True the directions may not be consciously selected or may not be articulated. It would seem beyond dispute, however, when a supervisor decides to behave in one way and not in another, or when a college teacher sets certain requirements and not others for students, or when program planners design one sequence and not another, that such choices are made with reference to anticipated achievement of some direction toward some ends. Here again, it is not a matter of making choices between two alternatives, where one choice automatically rules the other. A confusion is present in most discussions of goal-directed versus emergent program planning. The alternatives are not goals or no goals; they are rather multiple goals among which planners might make choices.

Viewing a teacher education program as a system within ever larger systems illuminates further the complexity of making choices among multiple alternatives. Experience with systems planning verifies an observation of many educators - - change in any part of the system affects other parts as well. For example, choosing the alternative of placing all study of teaching methods in schools and under the direction of school personnel brings consequences such as these: dislocation of personnel in the college; threat to their positions and security; need for selecting and training new instructors; management problems of record keeping and monitoring; financial problems; political repercussions. Thus, even while an alternative may appear to be self-contained and a decision to select it as a basis for program planning may look manageable, the fact is that few changes can be put into operation without considerable disturbance of much more than is apparently touched by the change itself.

Thus far it has been suggested that alternatives are present in the teacher education scene, but seldom in the classical sense of two sharply different and exclusive possibilities where a decision to take one necessarily precludes adoption of the other. In instances where dichotomies have been advanced as though they represented clear-cut alternatives, it is likely that such dichotomies are more fancied than real. The consequences of selecting one alternative and not others can be expected to have a ripple effect, both horizontally and vertically, through other parts of a teacher education program as a system.

GUARANTEES OF WISE SELECTION OF ALTERNATIVES

Professional practice calls for conscious, deliberate, rational decision making. Given the fact that teacher educators must continue to make choices among increasingly complex constellations of alternatives, what guarantees can we have that the best choices will be made most of the time?

It is proposed here that the characteristics of the decision makers, whether they are program planners, supervisors, teachers, or administrators, bear close relationship to the quality of decisions made, and subsequently to quality of program. The term characteristics is used to refer to dominant influences of behavior--predispositions that influence a person to respond in predictable ways. Brief comment on six such characteristics will illustrate the point.

Respect for self and others. Consider the general tendencies of persons who know themselves, accept themselves with all their recognized weaknesses and strengths, and really like themselves. Persons fortunate enough to have such a healthy self-concept are less likely to be defensive, less prone to put down other people in order to enhance themselves, more likely to hear what others say, and more likely to experience psychological safety under varying conditions. The chances are good that self-accepting persons also have a built-in respect for others. Think, if you will, of such a person as a member of a policy board in a developing teacher center where the discussion is challenging everyone's right to certain turf claimed. For a self-accepting, other-respecting member of a board,

board, participation in decision making is uncluttered by personal fears and threats or by the need to be in a dominant role all the time. If both school and college representatives on such a board have these characteristics, it might be anticipated that mutual respect would replace the all too common antagonisms, self-protective mechanisms, and closed-mindedness present in many discussions. And with mutual respect, there is bound to be better quality in the decisions made; that is, the better alternatives will be selected if participants are free to weigh all ideas on their merits.

Scholarship. Another characteristic of program planners that augurs well for the quality of decision making isd scholarship--the inquiring mind, the desire to learn, explore, examine, study. Professional scholars experience a kind of restlessness with things as they are, chafing at the bit to try something different, an excitement about a new question discovered or verification observed. And their general tendency is to ask questions, test alternatives, and resist unexamined proposals for change. Not enough teacher educators have this characteristic, a fact which accounts in considerable degree for the limited body of knowledge in existence relevant to practice.

As more teacher educators can be characterized as scholars, it can be predicted that more careful examination of alternatives will occur, decisions will more likely be based on evidence, evaluation of the consequences of decisions will be common practice, and programs will profit greatly from better decisions. Moreover, long strides toward professionalism and substantial contributions to the body of professional wisdom will be the inevitable result.

Creativity. A few years ago there was great interest in brainstorming, a procedure which encouraged participants to produce the most far out, fantastic ideas they could about a selected topic or problem and to express the ideas in the group under ground rules that no judgments would be pronounced during the time when ideas were being offered. It is unfortunate that such an exercise was seen by many as just a lot of fun and that "fantastic" ideas were not taken seriously. In teacher education programming there continues to ber need for fantasy, imagination, creativity. Many of the best alternatives lie dormant because teacher educators fail to allow their imaginations to take them far enough to break boundaries and remove the constraints of present practice. Decisions made in designing programs or in teaching suffer the consequences of limited vision unless there is a good share of imagination in the decision makers. Decision making need not stop with selection among familiar alternatives.

Cooperativeness. It is often said that a master teacher in the classroom is not automatically a "good" person to work with student teachers, because qualities in addition to competence in teaching are required. One such quality which is extremely important is the capacity and desire to share the self and work with another adult in the situation. Some people greatly enjoy discussing problems and issues, making plans, and examining outcomes with colleagues. Those persons like to be with other people; they believe in group approaches; they are committed to collaboration with others in making important decisions; they really believe that in many instances a decision arrived at by a group is better than one any individual might have arrived at. These are the people who learn in group situations; for example, as supervisors they learn from students; as college teachers they learn from classroom teachers, as administrators they learn from teachers and students. It is interesting to note, too, that these are the same persons who tend to contribute to the forward movement in group discussions. Because most of the significant decisions that have to be made in teacher education programming require group involvement, this quality in teacher educators is critical.

Commitment. Professional commitment is another essential ingredient in the character of teacher educators who can be counted on to make wise decisions. It has long been known that our students take on the values, skills, attitudes, and knowledge of our professional culture more by osmosis than by didactics. If this were the only reason for attaching importance to this characteristic, it would be reason enough. But there are other reasons also. Sociologists inform uys that commitment is measured not by what you do but by why you do it. The committed professional spends the extra time required in the consortium committee because he cares about the quality of program and intends to contribute to its improvement. The committed professional is able to submerge personal vested interests for the good of the group or program as a whole.

Knowledge and skill. This discussion of desirable characteristics of decision makers would be inexcusably imcomplete if it did not take into account the critical importance of being well informed and skilled. To be adequately informed as a decision maker in teacher

teacher education is demanding, for the range in areas where one must be informed is wide. In addition to the requisite of continuing knowledge in one's specialty, there are other areas in which one must be informed in order to make good decisions among alternatives. One must know the alternatives in the sense of having examined them against relevant knowledge and having considered possible consequences in the total system if selection of an alternative is made. One must know people involved and understand systems, organizations, and change and have the skills for using the understanding in real situations. One must be a skilled communicator, being well informed on facilitators and barriers to communication and possessing skills of facilitation.

Nice, warm, empathetic human beings, with professional commitment, imagination, and a desire to share cannot be depended upon to make wise decisions unless they also are informed persons. Conversely, very well informed persons are not likely to contribute to productive decision making if they lack the other characteristics. Given a collection of teacher educators, each of whom has healthy self-understanding and respect for others, an inquiring mind, an active imagination, a pre-disposition to share and learn from others, real professional commitment, and each of whom is well informed and skilled, we can have considerable confidence that the choices they make among alternatives they face will be the best choices possible.

THE ALTERNATIVES OF TODAY

What kinds of alternatives do we face now as teacher educators? In what areas are we required to make deliberate, responsible, rational professional decisions? Only the tip of the iceberg can be touched here but that tip might serve to indicate something of what lies beneath. Five areas are selected for brief comment.

Professionalism and the professional culture. In much of the rhetoric among teachers about being or wanting to be a profession, there is a remarkable absence of comment about the most important criterion for being recognized as a profession. As it happens, that criterion identifies one of the areas of alternatives in which all educators must make decisions all the time. The criterion might be stated thus: "A profession has a distinctive body of knowledge (not usually possessed by others), its members use that body of knowledge in their practice." In the late seventies, it is legitimate to ask educators, college and school-based teacher educators included, for how much longer they are going to lament the absence of knowledge and at the same time fail to choose alternatives that hold promise for increasing the knowledge base.

Teacher educators can deliberately decide to be students of the field, to conduct action research with respect to teaching future teachers, to record and analyze supervisory behavior, to examine new concepts in other disciplines for their usefulness in practice of education, to study research findings and conduct and share results of research in their own settings., Individuals can carry on a regular program of writing in which they force themselves to raise questions, draw generalizations for further testing, check on logic, or rationalize criticism.

The choice we have to make is clear. We have to select from among the many options open to us those that will enable us, and perhaps even pressure us, to use the best knowledge available in our daily activities. We must so design our professional lives as to ensure that we make our maximum contribution to increasing knowledge in our field of practice. We are not likely to build a reliable and respected professional culture unless we deliberately choose to do so. Our students are not likely to be intelligent and conscientious users of our culture unless they have opportunities to join us in a continuing search for more knowledge, better ways of performing tasks, and new, daring ideas to try out.

Field experience. Someone commented recently that there were few ideas teacher educators had talked more about and done less with than the idea of field experiences in the preparation of teachers. Let us grant that this criticism is justified and ask why it is so. It surely is not that we are uninformed about the importance of experience in the real world of the teacher as a basis for developing meaningful concepts about teaching. It cannot be that we have not heard the pleas of students, the evaluations from our graduates, and the persistent claims by veteran teachers that, without a reality base, much of what is done in teacher education programs is relatively ineffective.

Is our continued neglect of field experiences in programs perhaps due to choices of convenience, that is, convenience for college teachers? Might it be due in part to fear--fear that we can't actually deal with problems in the real world? Might experience in the real world of schools challenge too greatly what is going on in the college? For whatever reasons, it is true that the field component of programs continues to be neglected. And the problem is more serious because the choices made among alternatives are too often choices that not only neglect but actually negate even minimum quality of experience for students and for the school and college-based teacher educators as well.

Individualization. Apparently it is difficult for teacher educators to make and act upon decisions to individualize programs. Advocacy of individualization, for example in student teaching, has a long and noteworthy history, but practice in individualizing is hard to find. Even in contemporary practices of modularized instruction it can be observed that individualization often is limited to provision of more time and/or more activities to place students going through the same hurdles and arriving at the same ends. We have before us a vast array of alternatives for designing programs and parts of programs, so that students might have opportunities to engage in learning activities particularly relevant to their needs and purposes as they see them. Why not choose alternatives that permit appropriate self-selecting, self-guiding, and self-assessing experiences for students? Why not choose those alternatives that ensure environments in which students are encouraged to be themselves, to create and nurture their personal styles as teachers, and which facilitate the flowerng of excellence in the novice?

Governance. It is good that teacher educators, school and college-based, must today make decisions about their roles and responsibilities for the preparation and induction of the young into the profession. A new and wonderful kind of dialogue among school and college personnel is taking place in many quarters. The benefits from such dialogue in the planning and conducting of teacher education programs are tremendous. Invariably the experiences made available for students and for teacher educators are vastly improved in quality by collaboration among the parties involved in the school and college settings.

A key to gaining optimum yield from joint planning and carrying out of programs is in the goal toward which participants strive. Some appear to focus efforts on power and control with too little concern for quality of program. It is reasonable to assume that the only acceptable goal in the governance of teacher education is to provide for the nation's citizens the best education possible and to see that the preparation of teachers contribute to that end. When that goal is dominant in the minds of the decision makers, the chances are good that decisions about alternatives at the many forks in the road from where we are to where we want to be will be the wisest that could be made.

The market. Recent demographic data lead to two clear conclusions. First, the market for new teachers will be very tight for some period of years. Second, if education is to be dynamic, if new and better practices are to be forged, teachers in service will need to be involved in continuing education. Some teacher educators have

have chosen to make a positive contribution to the "state of the scene" by copnceptualizing new definitions of the field of teaching, by examining preparation and practice in sister occupations for commonalities that might suggest cooperation in program planning by, researching the question of predictive criteria that might be used to improve the selection of candidates for preparation, or by deliberately modifying program components so as to prepare graduates to take advantage of multiple options in non-school situations where teaching takes place or with age groups not commonly found in traditional elementary and secondary schools.

Many individuals, organizations, and institutions appear to have abandoned quite abruptly their primary concern with the preservice preparation of personnel and moved their efforts toward inservice or continuing education. It will be unfortunate if the result is a hiatus in continued work directed at improvement of preservice preparation. On the other hand, alternatives are now offered to capitalize on the continuity needed between pre and inservice education, on the joint efforts of college and school personnel in needs assessment and use of all resources in providing for needs, on the input to college programs that can come from extensive work in schools and vice versa, and on the opportunities to design and conduct research collaboratively.

In Conclusion

The main thesis of this paper is that teacher educators, as mature professionals, are obligated to make responsible, deliberate, and rational decisions in selecting or creating alternatives that give direction to their program planning and operation. New and extended opportunities to select and act upon the best decisions possible present themselves as school and college personnel seek to find their way as equal partners.

The Association of Teacher Educators is the most appropriate group to take leadership, for here we bring together school-based and college-based teacher educators committed to improvement in a most important program component--the study and practice of teaching. Distinctive contributions can be made by those among us who work in classrooms and schools, who daily deal with the real world of teaching. Increased contributions can and must be made by those of us who work in colleges and universities, who have the privilege of seeing many classrooms and schools in operation who have perhaps more resources at our disposal for the purpose of continuing, systematic examination of practice over time, space, and people.

We make the future largely by the decisions we make today. Will we make the best possible decisions among the multiple and complex alternatives we face?

FOOTNOTES

[1] The Association for Student Teaching worked very closely with the AATC not only on the revision of the Standard governing student teaching but in many other ways. The national office of AST was located in the institution of its Executive Secretary, Allen Patterson, State Teachers College, Lock Haven, Pennsylvania.

[2] National offices of the American Association of Teacher5s Colleges were located at the State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York, under the leadership of Charles Hunt.

[3] The accreditation function was taken over by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1954.

[4] John G. Flowers, Allen D. Patterson, Florence B. Stratemeyer, and Margaret Lindsey, School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education. Oneonta, N. Y.: The American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948.

[5] See Appendix for recommendations of the committee.

Margaret Lindsey, "Professional Laboratory Experiences: Ten Years Later," Yearbook of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1958.

APPENDIX

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE

Excerpts from

"Recommendations of the Committee," School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education. John G. Flowers, Allen D. Patterson Florence B. Stratemeyer, and Margaret Lindsey. Oneonta, N. Y.: The American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948. pp 317-333.

> Democracy as a way of life rests upon the ability of individuals to act on thinking.
>
> "Education for an atomic age must make the individual more intelligent, more alert, more discriminating, more critical, and more aware of what is going on in the world. We must develop men and women who will refuse to take their thinking ready-made from an intellectual department store. Education should not be a retreat into the past on the one hand, nor the mere furnishing of technical tools on the other. It should wake people up and teach them to think." (Benjamin Fine, "Education in Review: John Dewey at 88 Holds That Attracting the Best Minds to Teaching is a Major Problem." New York Times, October 19, 1947.

Ability to act on reasoned conviction is taught as truly as is the ability to read. This means a program of professional education where growth in ability to act on thinking and to guide others in developing this ability are central.

Professional laboratory experiences are a resource turned to by students and instructors to give meaning to ideas and to help the learner more clearly see the implementation of those ideas.

Only as learners share in the planning does the instructor gain insight into their purposes which makes it possible to give guidance at the point at which it is needed and in the way that it will make the desired difference in subsequent action. This means professional laboratory experiences which students have a share in selecting, for which they see some need in their plan of work, and from which emerge new needs and new purposes that give direction to next steps in the college program.

No longer can learning be conceived as essentially verbal in character. The findings from psychology as well as the practical experiences of everyday events show that verbal foundations divorced from a living sense of reality and apart from on-going activities cannot be relied upon to come into play in the control of subsequent life experiences. Only as the student participates in varied situations can he and those who are guiding him know what meaning cooperative planning with learners has for him, what he sees as effective relations with parents, or how he conceives of the work of the teacher in the community. This means professional laboratory experiences which provide opportunities for the student to evaluate his ability to function effectively in the range of activities of the teacher of today.

Definitions

Professional laboratory experiences include all those contacts with children, youth, and adults (through observation, participation, and teaching) which make a direct contribution to an understanding of individuals and their guidance in the teaching-learning process.

Student teaching is the period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.

Recommendations

Direct laboratory experiences should be an integral part of the work of each of the four years of college.

Professional programs should be so designed as to afford opportunity for responsible participation in all the major activities of today's teacher.

Both assignment to and length of time spent in a given situation or type of laboratory experience will vary with individuals. Each contact should be long enough to help the student achieve the pusposes for which he entered upon the experience.

Guidance of professional laboratory experiences should at all times be in terms of basic educational principles rather than patterns.

Guidance of these experiences must be the joint responsibility of the laboratory teacher and the college representative most closely associated with the student's activities in the laboratory situation.

Laboratory facilities should be sufficiently extensive to provide for each student contct with normal situations; varied enough to provide contacts with different pupil groups, curriculum and administrative organizations; and located for student convenience and staff accessibility.

Conclusion

All the resources available for giving prospective teachers contact with children, youth, and adults constitute a laboratory which

is an integrating center for professional experiences, used by all concerned with the professional education of teachers, used in differing degrees and amount by different individuals, used over long periods of time, and providing active contact with the varied responsibilities of the teacher.

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THE CHALLENGE TO TEACHER EDUCATORS

Julian Bond

Georgia State Legislature

A school textbook published in 1863 posed the following problem for young students of mathematics.

> "If five white men can do as much work as seven negroes, how many days of ten hours each will be required for 25 negroes to do a piece of work which 30 white men can do in 10 days of 9 hours each?"

It is fair to say that there have been some improvements in American public education since then, improvements in teachers and their training, in books and the lessons they teach, in the schools themselves and their construction, and in the ability of the school system to offer more equity to each child.

We are still too far, however, from what the schools ought to be.

Now that Boston has become Birmingham and American communities which once exported their morality are closing doors

doors when justice begs to enter, an entire new battle for a quality, integrated education has begun. The battle lines are drawn in the following ways.

> A recent gallup poll shows that a majority of southern parents do not object to school integration.
>
> At the same time, the United States Supreme Court began its term last fall with over 40 education cases on its docket--cases involving public and private school discrimination and equal employment issues in lower and higher education in America.
>
> Sociologist James Coleman's latest flights of fancy are contradicted both by constitutional necessity and by scientific study. Using twenty of the Nation's largest school districts as his laboratory, he attempted to demonstrate that one fifth of the white parents in half-white, half-black schools moved away to avoid court ordered desegration. In fact, almost no desegregation occurred in the cities he allegedly studied, and, if anything, segregation in the affected cities increased. He has made

> common intellectual cause with Shockley and Jensen, and with former President, Gerald Ford, who has joined the apologists and appeasers of those who do violence to the constitution of the United States.[1]
>
> Finally, data released by the Office of Civil Rights show that although black children are 27 percent of the total school enrollment, they constitute 42 percent of all suspensions. One out of every eight black secondary school students in America was suspended during the 72-73 school year as compared to one out of every 16 white students.

What is described here then is an education system unable to come to grips with the demand made 23 years ago by the United States Supreme Court to end the maintenance of the dual school system with all deliberate speed. From the days of massive resistance to today, the central theme is this--white Americans do not want their children to go to school with black children.

To accomplish this goal there has been manufactured the myth of the neighborhood schools, the lie that school segregation exists because of neighborhood segregation rather than racist school boards, and the fear that bussing somehow damages children's minds.

Let me quote at length from an article by Marion Wright Edelman, written for the Harvard Educationalk Review and reprinted in the New York Times. She writes:

> Many northerners seek to justify continued racial segregation in public schools primarily on three grounds: (segregation results not from illegal public actions or policies but from natural neighborhood patterns--the so-called de jure v. de facto distinction; (2) neighborhood schools are an inviolable American tradition: and (3) school busing endangers children.
>
> Nowhere are these myths more plentiful than in Boston, where conservatives rail against integration in the name of community and liberals wring their hands in confusion, embarrased that enlightened Boston is making a national spectacle of itself.
>
> But none of these myths withstands scrutiny. First, the facts in Boston are typical of what judges are finding in other northern desegregation cases, and they render virtually meaningless the distinction between de facto and de jure segregation.

United States District Court Judge W. Arthur Garrity, Jr., found that intentional Boston School Committee (school board) actions and policies to segregate black and white youngsters had produced in Boston a school system that is more highly segregated than any other school system in a city, north or south, with the same size and racial composition.

In a case involving the Denver Public Schools, the United States Supreme Court held that segregation, in fact, is unconstitutional if it is the product of 'segregatory intent' of governmental authorities.

Such segregatory policies or acts can be manipulations of school or housing patterns. The segregation of American cities is in large part the result of the policies and attitudes of the Federal Housing Administration.

Since 1935, F. H. A. underwriting manuals have recommended that two principles be followed (1) that racially restrictive covenants shall be honored; (2) that housing in racially integrated neighborhoods shall be rated at less than its fair market price.

In a study conducted by the F.H.A. in 1939 to guide its housing policies, it was noted that: "In a country settled largely by the white race, such members of other races, of course, have not been absorbed...It is a mere truism to enunciate that colored people tend to live in segregated districts of American cities...It is in the twilight zone, where members of different races live together, that racial mixtures tend to have a depressing effect upon land values and, therefore, upon rents.

As a result, American families could not move into integrated neighborhoods even if they wanted to, since the F.H.A. thought them bad economic risks.,

Second, the concept of neighborhood schools is not embedded in American educational tradition. Judges have found in numerous cases that the intense commitment to neighborhood schools seems to pale when segregation is possible.

Neighborhood schools (presume neighborhoods exist) and South Boston has been heralded as one of the few remaining coherent communities in Boston. But while it is a 'stable' neighborhood as such things go in contemporary American city, 40 percent of its 1970 residents had moved there within the preceding five years.

Even if South Boston were the homogeneous community it is painted to be, maintaining neighborhood schools when they ensure segregated education would not be defensible. As a Federal District Judge stated more than ten years ago in ordering desegregation of Fort Worth Public Schools: 'The constitutional right...is not to attend a school closest to home, but to attend schools which, near or far, are free of governmentally imposed racial distinctions.'

Third, unlike neighborhood schools, school busing has a long distinguished tradition in America. Forty-eight states authorize it and 15 states allow students to be transported to private schools at public expense. In the 1971-72 school year, almost 44 percent of all American children rode 250,000 buses more than two billion miles--figures that would increase if we counted use of other kinds of public and private transportation to get children to school. But the Department of Health, Education and Welfare estimated that only 3 percent of the busing has occurred as a result of desegregation.

Neither the average amount nor the length of busing has greatly increased with school desegregation. In a case involving the desegregation of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools, which provoked some of the most virulent antibusing opposition, the record revealed that, before desegregation, some one way bus trips ran to one hour and 14 minutes. After desegregation, bus rides averaged 30-35 minutes.

I have often been asked recently about why I support desegregation and school busing when some black parents oppose it. Black parents are no more a monolith than any other parents. They are human enough to resent having their children continue to bear the disproportionate brunt of achieving desegregation. There is hardly a black adult in this country who does not fight feelings of despair and fatigue daily from endless exposure to white hostility, condescension and plain insensitivity.

There is not one of us who would will this legacy of misery to our children. But racism is not something you can avoid, even in the confines of Harlem. Racial ignorance and insensitivity are not cured by keeping children apart.[2]

> Despite all these lies and the current trauma, most Americans still believe strongly in the public schools.
>
> Lawrence Cremin wrote in The Genius of American Education; Nothing is more striking than the boundless faith of the citizenry in the power of popular education. It was a faith widely shared by the generation that founded the republic, and it has been an essential article of American belief ever since ... education has been ... America's instrument of social progress and reform, and it has commanded such widespread popular support that D.W. Brogan was once moved to refer to the public school as America's formally unestablished national church.[3]

As public schools began to spread in America early in the Nineteenth Century, it was the vision of Horace Mann and other early advocates who finally convinced the American people that even those with no children in public schools should be required to pay taxes to support education.

They envisioned a common school, open to all, which would be the agent of national development along democratic lines, producing social harmony and equal opportunity, and in time eliminate poverty altogether.

It was not easy to establish a universal public system. Southern states especially were loath to accept the idea and even then it took private philanthrophy to include black people even partially in the system.

But our public education has by now become remarkably inclusive. It is a vast enterprise which employs five million people and spends nearly $50 billion a year. Schools are one of the major public institutions in American life, consuming significant political energy as well as dollars.

One justification for this huge investment has always been that public schools would produce a more just and equal society based on individual merit. There have always been other goals--for example, the need for a literate, informed citizenry to make democracy possible. But the goal of individual improvement and advancement through education has been a strong article of faith. Succeeding generations of American parents believed ever more strongly that schooling was the key to mobility and success for their children.

The national goal of equal educational opportunity arises from this fundamental faith in the value of public education. In the last few years, however, we have been challenged to question whether our original faith in the social benefits of education has been misplaced.

Waves of criticism, of course, wash over public education in every generation. But lately the schools are being rocked by a whole series of attacks which seem to undermine further attempts to equalize

> residents of poor districts should at least have an equal opportunity to be disappointed by its failure.[6]

Few parents in wealthy suburbs are going to take seriously the notion that they can give up their higher levels of spending without reducing the quality of their children's education.

The question of whether more money really leads to better education is surrounded by another money problem--education already uses up a large share of the Nation's resources. The price of public education has tripled since about 1960; the bill still seems to be rising about ten percent a year.

Part of that stupendous rise in school expense is due to the fact that we are trying to educate more children--both a larger population and larger percent of the population in school longer--but more important causes are higher costs of instructional materials, salaries, fringe benefits, building construction.

Many tax payers are not convinced that such increases have produced much improvement in education, and although it is likely that there are some who would be willing to bear larger tax loads if they could see dramatic improvement, the sad truth is that many more are simply concerned about the growing size of the total education bill and its effect on their taxes. This attitude--especially evident where costs are already high--can be seen in the rejection by voters of school bonds or school tax increases in recent years.

Serious predictions about the next decade indicate that costs may not keep going up at such a steep rate. Inflation, of course, will doubtless be a devastating problem for some time to come. But enrollments should go down due to the decline in population growth. Teacher shortages, moreover, are pretty much a thing of the past. One can even hope that new attention to efficiency and better school management could help bring costs down.

Finally, the use of property taxes to finance public schools must be eliminated. These taxes take more from low income tax payers than from any other, and reach a little more than 50% of the Nation's capital.

It's apparent that since the beginning of this decade, there has been very little evidence that anyone in public life cared very much about equal educational opportunities for all Americans.

In fact, whenever education is an issue at all, it is from the negative standpoint, against busing, against sex education, against certain books.

When these issues are used to cloud the real issue of equal education opportunities, what are the results? When any list is being drawn of the wrongs in public education, its most visible indices are its effects on the most disadvantaged Americans.

Added to the increasing rates of school dropouts, suspensions and expulsions--which are much higher among minority group youth than

than for white youth--is a new phenomenon, the "pushout". The pushout is defined in a study by the Southern Regional Council's School Desegregation Project and the Robert F. Kennedy Memorial as the student who through discriminatory treatment and arbitrary actions of school authorities is excluded from school, or else is so alienated by the hostility of his or her school environment, leaves school.

But even those black youths who stay in school are shortchanged. Although the median years of education for blacks now nearly equals the median for whites. The quality of education afforded blacks is much lower. In Equality of Educational Opportunity, Coleman found that the median score for white children on achievement tests was 9.7 points higher than that of black children in grade one, and 11.1 points higher in grade 12.[1] The schools, one could conclude, are widening rather than lessening disparities.

In order to change this situation, innovative programs, expanded funding which would necessarily include school finance reform, and institutional reform will be required at all levels from preschool through higher education, including adult education.

Proponents of reform are unlikely to receive a sympathetic hearing in any state house, local school board or in the corridors of the White House unless there is built up in this country a political force powerful enough to make the crisis in and failure of education in America part of the national agenda.

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That is a job for all of us, but particularly for people such as yourselves, people who daily see what schools can do, and don't, should do, but won't and people who see what wasted products production line schools can produce.

The crisis has been heightened in recent years by a former president who was the most anti-education president since James Buchanan, who vetoed the original Land Grant College Act in 1860.

There are no indications that the current administration is any more concerned about lack of opportunities available to disadvantaged Americans.

Let me close by reading yet another statement, this one from Southerners who gathered in New York recently to discuss the fight against inequity in American education. They said then:

> The ongoing battle to end segregation and inequality of educational opportunity--in the North as well as the South--will continue. Complete desegregation of our schools is essential to the achievement of freedom and equality in our society. The corrosive effects of racism harm whites as much as blacks and other racial minorities, Northerners as much as Southerners, and the non-poor as much as the poor. The survival of this nation depends upon

the achievement of interracial accord and interracial equity in our political, economic, and educational institutions. There is encouraging evidence of positive achievement in the area of school desegregation, and this empirical evidence must be brought to the attention of the American public, particularly by the media. It must also be recognized that those Federal judges who have acted in consistent accord with the 1954 Brown Decision and succeeding cases have in truth upheld and defended the very foundations of our constitutional system. Those Americans of all walks of life who have remained faithful to the ideal of equality will be vindicated by history. When all is said and done, one thing remains clear: Separate is not and cannot be equal. Segregation has been tried, and is still being tried, but segregation does not work. We state unequivocally that the choice for America is this: That we achieve desegregation and equality in our society, or else perish as a nation.[7]

FOOTNOTES

[1] Coleman, James Samuel, Equality of Educational Opportunity--Addresses, Essays, iec. On Equality of Educational Opportunity. Edited by Frederick Mostellar and Daniel P. Moynihan. (listed), New York, Vintage Books, 1972.

[2] Marion Wright Edelman, Harvard Educational Review.

[3] Cremin, Lawrence Arthur, The Genius of American Education by Lawrence Arthur Cremin, Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1965.

[4] Jencks, Christopher, et. al, Inequity: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America, New York, Basic Books, 1972.

[5] Virginia Fleming, The Cost of Neglect/The Value of Equality.

[6] Coons, Klune, & Sugarman, Private Wealth and Public Education, 1970.

[7] Integrated Education, Volume 7, September-October.

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INTERPROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Virginia Smith

President, Vassar College

As Senator Bond indicated, this is the time for a person to say how pleased she is to be here--how honored. I am not absolutely certain I'm pleased to be here at this moment. The reason is that I find myself in a situation where I am never completely comfortable. A situation such as this with a great number of people looking at me, massed in a room, waiting to hear some words of wisdom is uncomfortable. I find myself a lay person among experts because I am not, as indicated in the introduction, a teacher educator. I have had some contacts with teacher education, however, and I do want to mention a couple of those experiences.

The first contact I had with teacher education was as a supervisor of social studies teachers in public secondary schools. This was a part of my teaching assignment in economics. I managed in ten short years in that position to anger both my colleagues who were secondary school based and my colleagues in the college. I did this by what I thought was a relatively common sense kind of action but which subsequently appeared to be rather naive. I had some strange notion that if I were going to supervise people I ought to observe them; that it would be important for me actually to sit in their classrooms once in a while for the purpose of finding out what indeed they were doing with the social studies knowledge that they were obtaining in the college. It seemed that this created in the minds of the master teachers, based in the school, questions of turf ad also some slight paranoia, I may add. In the minds of my colleagues at the college, it created the kind of thing that happens often in a union situation where there is suddently mass movement to keep the person who is engaging in more than the average work from "showing of"-- a sort of feeling that somehow there is absolutely no justification for trying to do more than one should in that situation and it would be far beter if one just stayed back on the ranch and let others who understood the field situation be the people who do the supervision. Better to say, "the placement has been made," and leave it at that. Well, that was decades ago, and I imagine things have changed a great deal since then.

The second contact that I had with teacher education was when I was teaching in summer school. I had previously been teaching returned GIs and young traditional college-age students. That summer I had a large group of returned elementary school teachers who were coming back to get credit in economics. I have never been so startled in my life as I was after the first class. Several students came up to me and asked me to examine their notes to be certain that they got correctly what I had said. I was startled because never before had I ever thought what I said was found to be important. What startled me even more, I think, was the realization that, in order to teach that group, I had to be more attentive than ever to the questions of whether or not the learners in that classroom were going to participate in the learning process or instead remain passive. In that particular situation, I decided that lectures had to go and the whole class was changed into a project situation. I also decided at that time--and I have not changed since--that what is said in the lectures is far less important than what it leads the listener to think. What is done by a professor is far less important than what it leads the learner to do. For that reason, and several other reasons which I will share with you, I rarely write speeches. I hope that the process of meeting with you today is a process of thinking together, a sharing process, not a process of a person giving something and simply stopping at that stage.

Another reason I do not write speeches is that my particular level in the government is below that level at which I have a core of speech writers, and somewhat above the level at which I am given enough time to puzzle over exactly how something is phrased in writing. Therefore, I end up in jest of my situations thinking that I would like, if possible, to involve the audience in the activity in which I was assigned. The difficulty in this room is that it is very hard to involve this large a group in such an activity, but I would like you to bear with me for a few minutes and to involve yourself in one activity. I would like you to take out a piece of paper and pencil or pen and take about three minutes to think through your own thoughts on the subject that I want to pursue next.

There are four main points that I am going to talk about this morning. The first of these points relates to the teaching component in other occupations and professions. Take a couple of minutes now, as I have done, and jot down occupations, other than teaching, in which you think there is a very strong teaching component. Take a couple of minutes and proceed with that activity. When I have tried this approach, the maximum number has been about 30.

Now, let's see what are some occupations listed. First, how many have listed health workers? How about administrators? Shop stewards for labor unions? Counselors--or do you consider counselors as the same as teachers? Lawyers? Doctors? Parents? Consumer advocates? Government leaders? Community group leaders? Psychologists? Welfare workers? Bus drivers? Law enforcement workers? Education school professors?

This is certainly not an exhaustive list, but I just wanted to suggest a range of people. As we went through that list, the farther down we got the fewer people in the audience identified them. The interesting thing is, however, that in almost all of these there are teaching components. There are teaching components which are vital.

One of the projects of the Post Secondary Fund which we supported two years ago, was a project that provided, in its analysis of the problem, some evidence that the educational impact of non-instructional personnel in a school setting was very substantial. It was important to attend to the informal teaching function that people such as school bus drivers, workers in cafeterias, and people of that sort actually have in interacting with students in the school setting. A bus driver in a large city will tell you that it is often necessary for him to undertake some type of educational activity. Psychologists, counselors of many sorts, not just in the schools, shop stewards, administrators, all have a very heavy teaching function as a part of their responsiibility. And yet, this is rarely given much atention in a professional way. If it were given attention in a professional way, where would those people go to obtain formal educational instruction about how to discharge those teaching responsibilities? If it were recognized in a formal way, would there be any difference in how their teaching function would be handled from the teaching function assigned to classroom teachers?

It is interesting that in this country we have divided, for so many purposes, professions along bodies of knowledge lines and not along function or practitioner lines. Have you thought about the fact that often strong vocational interest tests or preference scales, relate to the professions and do not cross cut subsections of those professions? Is a psychiatrist more like a psychologist than a surgeon is like a psychiatrist? Yet, both of these might be listed under a medical preference. Is a lawyer, who is a consumer advocate, more like a community leader or a community based teacher than a corporate lawyer is like a consumer advocate? What I am suggesting is, that if we look at lateral divisions within professions, we will find many professions which have lateral divisions which are much more like the educational functions of teachers than they are like the rest of their professions.

It seems to me that just as the lawyer and the administrator often overlook their teaching functions so do those people who are so bound up in their relationship to the body of knowledge with which they work. Have you ever walked into an education class and heard the professor talking about, in a lecture, the relatively weak potency of the lecture method of teaching? You walked in and perhaps caught the quote that is so often used about the low retention rate after a short lapse of time and yet that information is being provided in a lecture form. I think that type of activity and that lack of attention to the practitioner aspects of teaching is fairly universal in many colleges across many disciplines. I do not want to single out the school of education any more than any other school within many large universities. Perhaps it is not uncommon that in schools of education you probably have relatively few requests in most of those schools for technical aid on teaching performance to be given to other departments within the university. Yet, it has become clear over the years that one of the most important needs in colleges and universities is the improvement of the teaching function.

Many of the proposals which we receive for faculty development from universities and colleges do not include input from schools of education. That source within the university is often overlooked as a source of expertise. I don't know why that is the case.

I would like to shift very quickly to the second point, and that is the relationships between these teaching components in other occupations, the changing face of education, service in the labor market, and the public climate and its impact on teacher education. First, let's look at the changing face of education. Education is becoming less school based.

All of the statistics indicate that more education goes on outside the school than in the school. In this, I am including education in industry, education through public media, education in all sorts of other types of community settings. As a result, education is creating a whole new set of professions of its own. These professions may not be called "Teaching" but they have many teaching components in them.

One of the new professions that is being created is that of the community based counselor. I would like to mention a few of the projects that use such individuals. At the college level, we have referral services that are community based. They are not in the high school; they are not in the colleges. They are based in the community. Their purpose is to talk with potential college students and talk with them about college interests, life plans, career choices, and to match those individuals to a collegiate setting or to some other type of educational setting. What kinds of skills do those people need? Among other things, we found that relatively brief training seems to result in as good service to other consumers as does a highly professional course in school based counseling because the community setting is so different from the school. Much that is learned in a regular school based counseling program may not relate to what these individuals will be doing. Perhaps even more important is that we find, in the community based situation, that the counselor has to have an entire range of information available to him or her which is hard to obtain in some of the more confined programs that exist.

The activities that seem to be important in those community-based settings include being able to help individuals assess the educational value of a great range of past informal and formal educational experiences in an attempt to see how these might fit into a great number of occupational possibilities. This is a very difficult thing to do, and we are finding that the people who seem to be able to do the best are those who have been through some sort of nontraditional process themselves and have then acquired a great deal of information through a variety of training. It is entirely possible that we need new programs that will add persons who are community-based counselors and referral agents to help older students return to the kinds of educational experiences that will serve them best.

The other thing that we have discovered in this kind of setting is that the individual needs more than information. He or she needs assistance in knowing how to make decisions. I do not know whether teacher education or counselor education programs provide activities that make it possible for the learners in those programs to find ways to empower an individual to make better decisions about life choices.

Last year a group came with projects to the Fund and wanted us to establish a special focus program on how to enable adults to make life choices. We did not create a special focus program on that subject because, in looking across programs in the field and strategies for such programs, we felt that it was too early. But it seems to me that there is a program that will be coming in the future.

It will be a program that recognizes a somewhat different examination of the relationship between the educator and the individual than perhaps occurs in a program training high school counselors or even college counselors. As we have developed programs, we have found that one of the important pre-requisites is our own need to learn how to assess the life-long learning needs of a community.

Have you thought about the fact that most life-long learning needs, most adult education needs, are determined by a marketed analysis? The traditional method is to find out what people want, to look at the resources, to measure the gap, and to develop new programs to see if individuals take them. Those that are not taken are then dropped. If that approach is used, and if that is the central approach used, then I would submit that many many programs which might prove to be effective would never have been developed.

If we had done a popular market poll, initially, on whether or not to have educational activities on mass television, called "Ascent of Man," would we have found support for the activity in a public poll prior to its occurrence? I think it would have been difficult.

I have examined many of the public polls on life-long learning needs in a great number of communities. If we had used a public poll, would we have found a community need for the type of emergency heart attack care that Seattle has launched so successfully in recent years? I doubt it. Yet, the response to that program was great. The problem that is being aided by that educational program is great. It looks as though the benefits accruing from it are also great.

Now that the program has been launched, other educators--health educators in other areas--will look at the program and say there is a demand for it because it exists in Seattle and people are doing it; therefore, it should probably be done in other settings.

What I am asking is, as an educator, as an analyst in the educational field, particularly for adult education, how would you determine the adult education needs prior to the time that somebody has launched a program so that it is a part of the market input?

I would also urge great caution on straight market analysis. Don't forget that marvelous automobile, "The Edsel", which was created as a result of a very sophisticated market analysis. It lasted, as you know, a very short time because somehow the aggregate data obtained from market analysis was incorrect. Market analysis, when it comes to what serves the individual and the community, should not be the last word.

Do we have educators who are trained in a process of translation who can go to individuals and find out what is hurting them, and what their problems are? Who can go to organizations and do the same thing and translate not directly but through a process of understanding what education has to offer, to transform these problems into educational program?

A large mass media adult education system did a survey of what kinds of programs were needed by those individuals, by possible learners in the area. They came out with two courses that looked very much like other college courses. The result of this was that those courses were launched. It is interesting that one of those courses was a psychology course, and that they had a fair number of people taking the course. It is also true that other individuals who were not looking at college as the base for education are launching great numbers of courses in Parent Effectiveness Training, Transactional Analysis, and in Transcendental Meditation. I am not saying that these are excellent education programs although I am sure that they have a great deal to offer to some of the learners in them.

What happens is that these people have said we are not responding directly to what the student says in terms of a traditional college program. We are trying to understand that individual and put that individual's needs in perspective and then provide educational responses of a less traditional sort.

Have you thought about the fact that it is possible to get 20 or 1000 people to pay $300 for two weekends or one evening of education?

education? When we say that the demand for education for individuals to pay for themselves is not present--it is untrue. The demand is that educators may not always have learned how to translate that demand into ways which directly address the problems of individuals. They come instead, often with a prepackaged strategy, without fully understanding the problems that the individuals in the communities are having.

Would a survey on adult learning needs of a community be perhaps somewhat more informative if in addition to the survey of individuals on what they might want if someone talked with various community organizations to see what their problems were? If we were to go as educators to a law enforcement agency, would we, by talking with them, perhaps create full new education programs that do not now exist. If we were to go to the health education people in the area, would we perhaps again be able to find new education needs that we could never find by sitting in our educational institution?

It seems to me that the changing face of education is reinforced by the changing face of the labor market. The labor market is becoming very "service dominated." We have heard the figures on that, and I would like instead of going over the figures, to give you a reference. Scientific American, December 1976, No. 6, article by Eli Ginsberg on the pluralistic economy of the United States, makes two points. First, one out of three employees in the United States works for a public industry. We are becoming a less private enterprise. Second, service industries are growing much more rapidly than the goods industry. This creates a change in the kinds of abilities that individuals will require through our educational systems.

In the service industry, the individual is in close contact with other individuals. The types of abilities that an individual will need will be an entirely different type of ability. In fact, it is entirely possible, if you are thinking of integrating professions, that a human service profession which is characterized by a large component of teaching may be an integrated profession which crosses many service professions. I am not going to talk about that in any detail because you have among you participants in the conference someone who has launched an experimental college--the College of Human Services--who deals with that profession in some detail. The thing that interested me about that college, among other, was their identification of the central components within the college. I will just list them briefly: assume responsibilities for life-long learning, develop professional relationships with citizens and co-workers, work with others in groups, function as a teacher, function as a counselor, function as community liaison, function as a supervisor, and act as a change agent.

Those are elements which are also beginning to be identified as central elements in liberal arts education for today's society. In other worlds, we may see soon that our concept of liberal arts is relatively close, with but a few changes in elements, to a basic educator's definition. To live in today's society, we may all have to become educators. To live in today's society, we may all have to learn how to both follow and lead in a number of groups. To live in today's society, we may have to become life-long learners and take responsibility for our own education because no particular block of education will serve us well over time. If that is the case, then it seems to me that every educator in today's school-based system must examine every activity within that system to determine whether the activity empowers the learner to take responsibility for his or her own learning or whether it creates a formal "education junky" out of the individual.

I am impressed and depressed, simultaneously, by the fact that some of our most nontraditional programs are beginning to measure their success in highly traditional terms; that is, whether the obtainer of a degree from the nontraditional undergraduate program enrolls in a course to get a graduate degree. It would seem to me, if that nontraditional program had, among other things, a requirement that an individual take responsibility for his or her own learning that it would be possible for the individual to satisy a variety of educational needs other than formal education. We have been "spoiled to be schooled."

A challenge to education would be to examine all of its processes in a way which would permit us to achieve far greater potency from learning situations that exist in nonschool settings. The public climate is also adding to the necessity for a new approach on service education and

and education as a component of that service education. Increasingly, consumers are demanding to know how they are being acted upon and how they can separate themselves from various types of dependent activities within the society. An unheard of thing--that consumers are beginning to question doctors, those great mysterious individuals, about why they are prescribing certain things, about why they are suggesting a certain type of surgery.

The need for the consumer to know and to understand is a new movement in this country and is a movement that is getting some public backing. I suggest that it is going to make stronger the teaching component which you already recognize in many of the older professions. The teaching component will become a clearer and more potent element within that profession. If that is the case, you do have something to offer to help those professions understand how to discharge that teaching responsibility?

I have two more points, and the two points are these. I think that in much of our activity in education we are struggling in a dichotomy which could be catastrophic if it goes in the wrong direction. In an effort to somehow appear to be more rational, we may be fragmenting even further the educational processes. In order to be goal directed and performance based, we may be dividing performance in far too narrow segments. It is interesting that we have two sets of people who are interested in competency.

We have one set of people that say that we are not interested in what the person knows, how the person can write a paper on group dynamics, but whether he can perform in that role. We have others who say that if you take the group, if you take the profession, or if you take the task, you can break it down to 28 subtasks. I received a proposal last year from a competency based program which identified 428 separate tasks in order to obtain a degree in what I consider to be a not too complex an area. There was another program which was competency based in housing and management. One set of competencies listed separately consisted of the ability to install eight different types of door locks. Now to many this is what is meant by creation of a performance based or competency based education.

The integrationists would argue that what we need is to find some type of education in which ability, skill, understanding, attitude, and motivation can all be used together in a way to perform and that it is that integrating approach which is the central thing rather than the fragmenting approach. This is a very difficult thing to talk about, but yet, we are seeing programs of both types coming forth to the Fund. We tend to go with the integrating approach, and I might say that many of the integrating approaches are not always in the name of competency based education. Some of them do not use that term at all. There are some very fascinating integrating approaches. One of which is taking place at Stoneybrook, where a master teacher provides the integration among courses or provides integrative help among courses by actually sitting in those courses with students and then having an integrating seminar.

It is interesting to note in looking over higher education that we have so much greater faith in the students. Those of us who are teaching, feel that it is impossible to show the relation among courses in our own activities and to leave choices up to the student. We are pretty confident that whatever integeration is necessary can be accomplished by the relatively unexperienced learner coming into the educational setting. If we are not able to develop techniques, strategies, and approaches that aid in the integration, that I am sure that the potency of our collegiate education, both in professional schools and graduate schools, is going to be greatly diminished.

The same thingh is true about integrating theory and practice. Not long ago I had a site visit to a project where I think the process in practice at the elementary level was being integrated beautifully. I was at the "Community Thinkers Tournament" in Los Angeles. I sat in a classroom where students were learning how to play the "onward and equations game" for the purpose of improving their vocabulary and mathematical skills. At the same time, this was integrated into a "Community Thinkers Tournament" which was taking place in the community on the telephone. I ws sitting next to one young fellow that was engaged in this activity in the class and I said, "Do you play this game by telephone?" He said, "Oh, sure--that is the only way to play it. We are just practicing here." His idea was that the school situation was just a practice for something that he was deeply and personally involved in and internalizing on the outside of that classroom situation.

It is deeper than that when you get to the professional schools. We have law schools which are attempting to find new ways to integrate theory and practice. One I find particularly interesting, because it starts from the theoretical base, points out that a person who comes to a lawyer's office with a problem does not come in with a little sign across his chest saying, "This is an equity problem." Nor does he come in saying that that is a "tort problem." The person comes in with a problem. It may be a problem that has some aspect of liaility to it but you can find liability in torts, in insurance, in crime, inequity, in a whole range of property and a whole range of legal disciplines.

So, the question was how do you find a way to integrate these concepts for the law student. They turned the curriculum on end and said, "Let's look at the integrating principles of cross bodies of knowledge--not dispense with the bodies of knowledge. Before they get into insurance, equities, contracts etc., let's look at the principle of liability and see what its common elements are before we move into the disciplines." Would there be a possibility of taking some of our educational principles and looking at them in that common way before moving into how these might be dispensed in the classroom, in the community group, in the profession, and so on? Might it be possible for us to distill promptly the whole notion of relation of one individual to another in an educated sense and to bring from that experience some principles that can be first considered in broader settings before moving into more specific ones?

The fourth point that I would like to make is simply this. There is an anachronism in education that we teach toward what we can evaluate. Unless we develop new assessment techniques, new evaluation techniques for programs, we will probably continue to proceed as we are. Since it is easiest to assess knowledge that an individual has acquired, we often find it easiest to transmit knowledge.

The assessment of whether an individual can actually perform in a given role is extremely difficult. It may require something that takes longer than 50 minutes in a setting far more complex than a paper and a pencil. It may actually provide also a very rich instructional opportunity. I think that we will move into a situation where we can integrate theory and practice, where we can integrate knowledge in a lateral sense across lines, only when we develop assessment techniques which treat the individual as a whole, performing as a whole person, in a whole actual setting. When we can accomplish that, we will have developed a "sun" toward which teaching can turn in a way that has not occurred in the past. We can begin to identify more clearly what it is that an educational program can do for an individual and a community.

We will be in a far better position to evaluate the relative merits of existing programs. When we adopt certain principles, such as empowerment of an individual to handle his own learning as a goal of the program, we may be in a far better position to evaluate the elements of existing programs in contrast with new programs. As long as those evaluation techniques and assessment techniques have not yet been developed, I suspect we will continue to do as we have been doing.

In the opening address for this conference, Dr. Lindsey mentioned that education is a"system"--it is. I think that change agents in education are blessed if they are somewhat shortsighted. If they were not shortsighted, they might be so upset by all the changes they would see down the line that they might never take a step toward change. So, if they can be sufficiently shortsighted to at least take one step down path, I would suggest that perhaps one of the most important steps would be to deal with assessment and evaluation in a way which would permit us to better understand the consequences of what we are not doing. I think it might be one of the most potent links in the chain in the system to attack in order to bring about more far reaching changes.

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SCHOOLS AS A BASE FOR THEORY BUILDING

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At a time when most scientific enterprizes are either proud of their theories that characterize their field or are deeply involved in efforts to generate new and better theories, our profession of teacher education is often seen as too theoretical. Again, when practitioners in other fields often assure us that there is nothing more practical than a good theory, we are often told by our students that our teachings are impractical. One explanation for this apparent anomaly is that we are not using our schools sufficiently as a base for theory building. To develop this argument, I intend to briefly define what I mean by theory; to differentiate between descriptive and prescriptive theory; to propose several reasons why theoretical statements are rejected by our students; and finally to suggest how making use of schools as a base for theory building might contribute to the remedying of the situation.

WHAT IS THEORY?

There are at least two kinds of theory. The first is normally thought of as scientific or descriptive; the second as prescriptive. Descriptive theory isd an explanation which accounts, at least in part, for observations in nature. For example, theory suggests why some persons get smallpox and others do not; or why some animals have long necks and others do not. By the very nature of the inquiry process, it is important to seek theories to "explain" known theories. For example, it is always possible to address any theoretical formulation in a "why" question or with a query into "how it works." Thus if I account for smallpox infections by suggesting that there are microorganisms which carry the disease, a curious person, hearing of my explanation, could ask: "How do they do that?" Often, theories are not fully elaborated--and shorthand notations or elliptical references are used to denote theories. Rarely are they spelled out completely.

Prescriptive theory is an attempt to advance norms of behavior. Therories in this category urge certain behaviors on persons with a "should" imperative. Again, most prescriptive theory which we hear is not completely elaborated or fully rationalized. Prescriptive theory shares with descriptive theory a vulnerability to an endless number of "why" questions and a lack of precision. However, the Ten Commandments, as lacking in rationale as they may seem, do exemplify an attempt to theorize in a prescriptive sense.

It is my judgement that often when our students complain of "theory" in their education courses they are referring both to descriptive theory and to prescriptive theory. It would serve my purposes now to give an illustration of each--examples which I will use later in my discussion.

1. Carroll's Model of School Learning.

In brief, John Carroll (1963) argued that aptitude measures could more usefully be seen as an index of the amount of time it would take students to reach certain instructional objectives rather than in the more traditional sense as an assessment of the levels which students could attain. This formulation lked to the statement that the degree to which an instructional objective is acquired is measured by the ratio of time allotted for learning to time needed to learn. The latter term was seen as an aptitude measure. If a student were allowed all the time he needs for meeting an educational objective, e.g., a "mastery" learning strategy were applied (Bloom,1976), then the ratio equals one and the student would acquire 100% of the objective.

In actuality, this theory is much more elaborate than its description here. For instance, Caroll made distinctions between the time the teacher allocates to learning and the extent to which the student takes advantage of that time. Furthermore, the model takes into account variability in the quality of instruction and the ability of the student to understand the instruction. No matter how much time is spent on teaching Newton's Third Law, the instruction will be ineffective if it is offered in Greek to a group of students who speak only English. The theory suggests that if two groups of students are formed by a random procedure from a common population, and if one group receives 10 hours of instruction and the other receives 20 hours of instruction, it is reasonable to predict that the relevant achievement scores of the former, assuming, furthermore, that the quality of instruction is uniform over both conditions. In sum, Carroll's formulation attempted to account for why some students attain a higher degree of learning than others. His answer: The time they spend in learning in relationship to their aptitude. The theory does not explicitly state what teachers should do, it m[illegible]y is an attempt to advance an explanation for a "[illegible]al" phenomenon.

2. A Model for Dealing With Content in Social Studies and Science.

Because I am not entirely sure that there is such a thing as "prescriptive theory" and because I am reluctant to assign anyone else's work to this category for fear I would do someone an injustice, I have chosen to illustrate prescriptive theory with some recommendations that I have advanced over the years as I have worked with teachers. I advocate that in teaching content in the area of science and social studies, teachers should make the following distinctions:

a. Students should become aware of the distinctions between facts and generalizations advanced in class and in the manner in which those facts and generalizations were generated.

Thus, students should be invited to know (1) that historians for the most part concede that the South won the Battle of Bull Run and (2) that methods were used by historians to come to this conclusion. No one actually won or lost the battle. Such a judgement is an attribution made to the entire set of facts and circumstances and contexts surrounding the battle by very fallible persons called historians. On what basis is the attribution made? Again, it is reasonable for students to know that light travels, in certain conditions, at the rate of 186,000 miles per second. They should also have an idea about how this figure was determined.

b. Students should become aware of distinctions between findings and explanations.

Namely, students should appreciate that findings are normally the more reliable of the two--with explanations generally changing as research and our conceptions of reality change through the years. For example, the behavior of magnets (attracting and repelling) has been well documented for over 1,000 years, and yet the theory accounting for why magnets behave in this fashion has an interesting history. In fact, the theory that we learned in general science classes 30 years ago has been repudiated. The theory that my children learned in science class to explain the phenomenon became more sophisticated but it too will, in all likelihood, be modified still further by research. An example in social science: We know fairly reliably that the United States was not prepared for a Japanase attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941--but the explanations for why we were not ready are many and we may expect more as new documents are discovered.

c. Students should see that while many explanations may be advanced to account for certain phenomena, some explanations are better than others.

As explanations are advanced to account for an observation, students must sort out those that seem reasonable, testable, credible, from those that appear unreasonable, that appeal to "magic-thinking" or the concepts of Kismet. It is not that the explanations in the first category are true and those in the second are false. It is merely that we need to sort out all possible explanations into those that are more credible than others to initiate our inquiry. I grant you that it may be the case that valid explanation might initially be categorized as unreasonable.

The theory in the form it is presented here, lacks a great many things,i.e., statements of justification in terms of the assumptions one makes about the intellectually liberating spirit that the teaching of science and social studies should engender and the logical connections between the prescriptions themselves and some idealized goals in education. Nevertheless, the theory does give direction to teachers and suggests definite actions teachers should take as they engage students in the study of these content areas. In addition, a supervisor can observe the extent to which teachers choose to apply this theory within their classrooms.

3. A "Needs" Theory for Teachers.

It can be the case that prescriptive theory is derived from descriptive theory. One example in this category might suffice to illustrate this claim.

The work of Miller and Dollars (1939) at the Institute for Human Relations in New Haven, explored the relationship between frustration and aggression. Their formulation attempted to account for why some persons are aggressive in their relationships with others and some are not. The theory suggests that one explanation for the variance in aggressive tendencies lies in the emotional states of the individuals. As persons are frustrated in some significant way, a common reaction is to become aggressive. Indeed agression can take on many forms--including aggression against self. The latter is often manifested in withdrawing or submission patterns of behavior. The frustration-aggression linkage, advanced as a descriptive theory led to a formulation of a "needs" theory in education by L. E. Raths (1971). The theory had the following principal components:

> a. Almost every child meets very serious problems from time to time. Many children are emotionally secure and can meet these problems "head-on." These children may have persons to whom they can turn to when problems become intense or other resources upon which to rely.
>
> b. Some children have discovered ways of meeting problems that include aggression, submission, withdrawing. These patterns tend to aggravate the initial problems and induce new ones in a school setting.

From this descriptive theory, a prescriptive theory has been derived. It has been stated in the form of "do's and don'ts" relevant to the application of the descriptive theory. For instance, the "needs" theory suggests that teachers should not label a child as "bad" when he is aggressive. Instead, it is suggested that teachers should act in specific ways in an attempt to meet the child's emotional needs--to make a lonely child feel wanted; to assist a failing child to have a sustained experience with success; to aid a confused or frightened child to acquire some confidence in his surroundings. These prescriptions appear to be consistent with the descriptive theory. Notice that given a descriptive theory, it is possible to construct several prescriptive theories that are perhaps competing and conflicting, while remaining consistent with the "parent" theory. For instance, for a study of the needs theory teachers might be urged not to meet the needs of children in schools, but instead to work with children to help them meet their own needs. Thus, the perscriptions of this second view would be quite different from the prescriptions of the former--but they would be based primarily on the same parent "descriptive theory."

Reactions of Students to Theories

To return to a point made earlier, often we hear complaints that our courses are too theoretical. And yet, as I examine reports of teacher education programs content, I find very little evidence that theories such as the ones I described above are included in the curricula. If theory is presented to students, it tends to be more of a prescriptive sort than a descriptive one. And, more of the prescriptive theory is of a "should not" variety than a "should" approach. All this is to say that, in my judgement, we need to be increasingly theoretical in our approaches. To be successful in in this vein, we must recognize why some of our students have negative reactions to theories. Let me suggest several. The first three reflect on characteristics of our students; the remaining have to do with the theories themselves.

1. Theories are presented to teachers at times in which they are not ready to receive them, thus the ideas are rejected as irrelevant.

Consider students enrolled in a reading methods course just prior to entering a student teaching experience. Are they interested in 15 theoretical definitions of reading or are they more interested in learning how to group children? How to make assignments? How to keep records? Fuller (1969) has collected evidence to suggest that teachers early in their training are less interested in theoretical approaches and more interested in becoming personally prepared to be able to do the job in a way that will receive acceptance, if not acclaim, from supervisors, principals, and cooperating teachers. Fuller's work could be extended to inservice offerings.

In the field, teachers are facing enormous problems without much help from academicians. How do you handle uncommitted parents, children on drugs, pupils with severe learning blocks, students who won't sit still? Imagine a teacher facing a raft of these problems attending a required workshop in which a professor is speaking about how to handle the teaching of content in the science and social studies field. It is no small wonder that the speaker, or at least the planning committee, is not lynched.

The presentation may not meet the problems the teachers feel are real--and it will take a great deal of convincing to get teachers to see that "not everything they here and do has to be addressed to their pressing problems." Teachers' frustrations and impatience probably won't (and shouldn't) tolerate this point of view.

2. The theories that are presented in teacher education courses conflict with basic beliefs that students have about teaching, learning, and human nature.

It has been said often that one's views about education and one's views about life are fairly much over-lapping. Our students come to us with 18 years or more of experience and previous training that have shaped their views of human nature. A student, upon hearing the needs theory prescriptions, might react in the following manner: "I have been taught, and I believe deeply, that all of us, regardless of age, should earn what we get. Children should not receive praise unless they deserve it. They should not be placed in special situations to experience 'success' unless all children are placed in similar situations. It is immoral and unethical to give some children experiences different than others. Being fair is treating all children alike." Persons with this bent might reject the needs theory prescriptions and also any advocate of the theory. Assuming that the presenter of the needs theory does so with some vigor and force, it may be the case that some "dissonance" could build up in the mind of the student. (Another theory?) One reaction to dissonance is to discredit the source--to label the source as "stupid", "unknowing," "impractical" and so

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3. The language of theories does not coincide with the language of teacher--a situation clocking communication.

A teacher considering the prescription of making distinctions between "facts" and "explanations" may not use those terms in a way similar to that of the teacher educator. The training he has received, and the mentality the teacher brings to the interpretation of the ideas may obscure their value. Each of us accepts and uses jargon from our own fields or sub-specialties. In addition, after years of experience with certain concepts, words take on special meanings for us. This process may reduce our ability to communicate ideas. For example, in trying to introduce the notions Ideas from Westburg (1972) of "coverage" and "mastery" to a secondary school faculty last year, I noticed that my audience was confused. One explanation that occurred to me, after trying to listen to their puzzlements, was that these terms seemed to makje little sense to them. After extended discussion on our part, it became apparent that the notions of "breadth" and "depth" communicated to teachers the concepts I had in mind. For a time, though, the assessments that teachers were making of the theory I was sharing with them were shaded on the negative side in part because of a language problem.

4. The theories do not explain every single case. Counter examples come readily to mind and thus the theory is considered of little value.

A teacher listening to a presentation of the Carroll model might consider the fact that a boy in his class, Peter, "has a very high aptitude for mathematics and has been working on fractions for twice the length of time as everyone else in class, and he still can't do them correctly. Since Carroll's model doesn't account for Peter's problem, it must be of little value." The notion that theories are true or false; 100% predictive or worthless must be addressed as theory is shared with our students.

5. The theory might take enormous efforts to apply without an obvious pay-off.

A science teacher who wishes to implement the recommendations of the theory advanced above dealing with handling of content matter in science and social studies, may find that its application requires an enormous amount of library work. The "ways" in which scientific knowledge have been generated are not found in many texts--and if he were to invite children to ask questions such as "how is it known that such is true," the teacher may feel that he should know the answer to the question ahed of time. Such a task would be enormous--both in anticipating the questions and looking up the answers. After an evening or two in the library trying to prepare for the onslaught of student questions, a teacher might give it up--especially since it would be difficult to see "results" from this approach in the near future--if at all. (In point of fact, the theory is fairly vague about the outcomes one might expect from applying these prescriptions.)

6. The theory, if implemented, might disrupt other aspects of the school day, the routines, the schedules, the expectations of parents, etc.

The Carroll model, translated into action, suggests that slower children need more time to acquire some learnings than brighter children. Since we have some measures of aptitude and can, based on these measures and our own judgments, sort children out into faster and slower learners, we could give the slower learners more learning time than the faster ones. Implementing these ideas in a school setting raises havoc with problems of scheduling and of space. The music teacher is on a tight schedule. We don't want only the students who are brighter in mathematics, and thus needing less time in that area, to have music--leaving the slower children behind in math class. In fact, we are committed to the idea that music is appropriate for all children. The same of art, physical education, assemblies, and other worthwhile activities. Where is the extra time for the study of mathematics going to come from? Carroll's ideas are all right in theory, it might be argued, but they are impractical.

7. The theory might sound credible enough, but upon further examination in a practical setting, it may be the case that the concepts embedded in the theory are so imprecise they don't give sufficient direction either to the implementation of the theory or to its evaluation.

This characterization has been attributed to Ausubel's theory (1963) of advanced organizers (What is an advanced organizer?); to Gagne's (1970) notion of a hierarchy (as opposed to a sequence); to Dewey's notion of "growth" and to many others. Teachers may have difficulty understanding the needs theory if they cannot differentiate between aggressive behavior that is on the extreme pathological side and that somewhat similar behavior that is in the main "culturally" acceptable. The theory may be ambiguous in another way too. The theory may not make sufficiently clear the limits to which it is to be applied. Thus, a theory might advocate that teachers be "indirect," after Flanders (1970) in their teaching. Taking this advice almost too literally, a teacher may never criticize a student's work or behavior since a move in this direction would be a "7" in Flanders' categories--contributing to a lower i/d ratio. So many of the variables with which we deal in education and in social science have optimum values--we can praise too little and too much; we can evaluate too often and too rarely; we can provide support to excess and we can ask children, "How do you know?" too often. Theories may not communicate adequately a sense of balance, a notion of an optimum level of application.

8. The theory in fact does not work: it is false.

The final explanation of why a theory may be rejected by teachers is that in fact it is false. Very often, we find the case that professors or authors advance theories and rarely test them. Sometimes, the theories are advanced in language that is so vague the testing of the theories is almost impossible. When these authors confront research that refutes their point of view, often it is critiqued heavily and adjudged as not worthy of consideration while research using similar designs and similar measuring procedures which confirms the theory is cited in its support. While we may be wary of the teacher who claims, "I tried it and it didn't work" since perhaps the application was not precise and/or the assessment of its working might not have been timely or accurate, we must take into account the idea that teachers are seeking solutions and when they hear one suggested in theoretical form, they are disposed to trying it out. And it may well be the case, that some ideas that appear to be good and sound, may not be valid.

Using Schools in Theory Building

How can these dispositions, reactions, and intellectual tendencies which are inimical to the application of theory in school settings be overcome? The two sub-classifications--those associated with theories themselves can be remedied, I am suggesting, by a process of theory building in school settings. First, by using the perceptions of teachers and their reports of what is happening in schools, theorists can build into their work language that is more likely in synch with that of teachers. Second, by testing theory in school settings, problems with its validity, its ambiguity, and its significance can be determined and faced directly. These ideas are elaborated in the following paragraphs.

Perhaps the most common view of theory development is that of testing its validity through empirical approaches and through analysis. Experiments are run or assumptions are identified in order to assess the credibility of the theory. I see efforts such as these as very important. We must ask all theorists to translate their beliefs into propositions that can be tested and, as a result of these exercises, modified. As an aside, I might say that many of our influential colleagues in research seem to be advocating approaches that are likely to lead to the "discovery" of theory while deprecating approaches to the testing of theory. I think both goals are important and schools seem the appropriate setting for such efforts.

Easley and Zwoyer (1975) have recommended that some of the best teaching is performed by "listening". As theoreticians spend time in schools listening to the ways teachers have interpreted the problems and difficulties encountered in schools, they can be in a position to better understand the teachers' perceptions of the problems and to introduce those words into the theory they construct.

It would be extremely important for theoreticians to develop theories that both account for phenomena in which teachers are interested and find relevant and also incorporate variables that suggest action on the part of practicioners. Westbury (1972) has made the distinction between theories that are "causeless" and those that are not. For instance, if a theory accounts for why some children learn and some do not in terms of the differences in the

the associated genetic pools, then there isn't much schools can do about it. The differences are caused almost irretriveably by factors out of the teachers' hands. But if variables were incorporated into theories that could be manipulated by teachers, then teachers might work with children to bring about desired ends. My guess is that theories such as this are more likely to be developed by theoreticians who are familiar with schools and who use schools as a base for their theory building.

So often, theoreticians seem to act in a huckster role in selling their ideas. As such, advocates appear to take extreme stands--ignoring often the subtleties of the classroom. "One-shot" inservice sessions seem to accentuate this approach. With only one hour available to discuss a pet topic, what theoretician is going to dwell on counter-examples, on subtle clues that suggest the theory would be inappropriate to apply? On the other hand, of theoreticians would spend time in schools working closely with teachers, perhaps areas in which the theory might be less applicable could be identified and noted. Also, as relationships between teachers and theoreticians are developed, frankness and openness in communicating might also be a part of their exchanges. In this setting, theoreticians would be more likely to qualify their claims and teachers might also be more willing to attempt to operationalize many of the vague concepts found in the theory. Being in the school also would give the theoretician the chance to point out examples and counter-examples of the concepts found in the theory so as to clarify his meaning both to the teachers--and even to himself.

By observing how the theory is implemented within an actual school, a theoretician can see clearly the extent to which other aspects of the school day, the school routine, and the expectations of others are altered. It would be extremely helpful for example for a researcher to attend a parent conference in which complaints are being registered about practices that emanated from a translation of his theory. Since clearly a theory that doesn't work in practice is not yet a good theory, the opportunity to see the problems that arise in its implementation should prove invaluable to the development process.

I have been impressed by the television advertisement in the Mid-West directed at the farmers in our community. They advocate certain herbicides, fertilizers, or farm implements usually with the claim that the product will "save time." So often, our theories, especially the prescriptive ones, entail spending more time rather than less. As theoreticians visit in schools and actually practice their teaching skills, perhaps they can find ways in which their ideas might be implemented with a saving of time as well. Since a theoretician is interested in having his theories adopted, it would be important for him to iron out time snags that develop in its implementation so that it will appear more palatable to teachers.

Objections to theory based on the belief systems of teachers are the most difficult to overcome. What is an advocate of open education to do with a teacher who firmly believes that children, especially young children, should not be given choices? How can a scholar work with a teacher who prizes his own experience so deeply that the weight of sophisticated evidence that is widely respected is ignored? What is needed is to invite all parties in the dispute to inquire into their positions. As cited above, as the persons involved learn to respect one another, and as intellectual exchanges take place, not in a rush or in defensiveness, but in a spirit of questioning and inquiry, then perhaps modifications in positions will take place that will make a specific theory more acceptable and even theorizing itself more palatable.

Conclusion

In sum, theory building must be seen as more than simply generating ideas. In addition, testing them, refining them, engineering them, communicating them are processes which must be a part of that activity. And the place to carry out these efforts is in the schools.

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THE PRESENT KNOWLEDGE BASE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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Before turning to a more direct consideration of the topic it would be helpful for us to recognize the broad range of ways of knowing. Mankind gains knowledge in a wide variety of ways, each offering unique advantages and each suffering from certain limitations. The concept of a continuum of ways of knowing is a useful one, for it suggests a relationship between widely different knowledge building processes that departs from our usual disposition to compartmentalize fields of knowledge and standardize certain modes of inquiry as appropriate to only one or a limited number of knowledge compartments. Perhaps we can benefit from considering a continuum of knowing that ranges from intuitive or artistic insights, through logical analysis, historical review, case studies and surveys, to empirical tests in a controlled environment. Of course there are many other points on the continuum as well. Our purpose is not to develop an extended list of ways of knowing but instead to remind ourselves that we do indeed gain knowledge variously and that an appreciation of the many modes may help to enrich the knowledge base upon which our teacher education decisions rest.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION

The central importance of the educative process to mankind and to our cultural well-being is well established in the research literature for anthropology, sociology, and other behavioral sciences. A University of Colorado philosopher of science David Hawkins, underscored the point recently, observing that

> Education in its broadest meaning is the transmission of culture and presupposition of cultural evolution. At the human level it occupies a place comparable to that of genetics of the animal level. And since even the biological success of mankind depends primarily upon this process of cultural reproduction, there is no threat to our existence greater than a threat to the process of education. If it were radically interrupted for a generation, we would die as surely as, and more quickly than, we would from gross genetic damage. Far more likely, and not so easily diagnosed, would be an uneven attrition of education by which culture would reproduce itself on a gradually declining scale.[1]

While granting the cultural significance of education, however, many recent writers and researchers have been less supportive in their assessments of the importance of schools and the influence of teachers on the learning outcomes of children and youth. We must recognize, of course, that education and schooling are not synonomous and that there are many influences on children affecting their learning in addition to schools and teachers.

DO TEACHERS MAKE A DIFFERENCE?

The answer to that question is vital to teacher education. If the influence of teachers on the learning outcomes of students is minor in relation to other factors, our resources and energies might best be direct ed elsewhere. If, on the other hand, schools and teachers exercise a significant influence on learning, the nature and quality of teacher education should be matters of high priority for our society.

Answers to that critical question have not been uniform. Harvard Professor Christopher Jencks and others have published a number of studies questioning the capacity of the schools and of their teachers to overcome the negative effects of social and economic deprivation. In the highly influential report, Equality of Education Opportunity, James Coleman and his colleagues concluded that "schools bring little influence to bear upon a child's achievement, that is, independent of his background and general social context; and...this very lack of independent effect means that the inequalities imposed upon children by their home,neighborhood, and peer environment are carried along to become the inequalities with which they confront life at the end of school."[2]

A different perspective is provided in a USOE publication reporting the best of recent research on factors influencing pupil achievement.[3] In it, former USOE Associate Commissioner Don Davies stated, "Intuitively we know that teachers do make a difference--both positive and negative-- in how a student performs, in his level of achievement, in his behavior, and in the values he acquires. If teachers did not make a difference, we would be satisfied with schools run and operated wholly by machines."

Although holding that currently we could not make any sort of meaningful quantitative estimate of the effect of teachers on student achievement, Alexander Mood[4] responded to the question, Do teachers make a difference?

> Of course they do . . . . There are dedicated teachers who are determined that every last child in the class will learn the material expected of him. There are uninspired teachers who are getting something across but not much. There are loving teachers who bring life saving affection to miserable children of acrimonious families. There are unfeeling teachers who injure children by publicly humiliating them. There are brilliant teachers who can convert a child's interest in almost anything into hard work on the very thing he

> needs most. There are idiots who destroy children's confidence by convincing them that they do everything wrong. There are saints who somehow civilize little demons that everyone else has given up on as hopeless. We could go on and on with statements of this kind; the point is that some teachers make a huge difference; some teachers make a large or medium or a small difference; a few teachers may even do more harm than good but all teachers desire to make a big difference if we would tell them how; we could if we would put some real effort into it.

Calling for realization of full professional status for teaching because of its crucial importance, AACTE's Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching holds that

> Every moment in the lives of teachers and pupils brings critical decisions of motivation, reinforcement, reward, ego enhancement and goal direction. Proper professional decisions enhance learning and life; improper decisions send the learner toward incremental death in openness to experience in an ability to

> learn and contribute. Doctors and lawyers probably have neither more nor less to do with life, death and freedom than do teachers. To deny the child the skills and qualities of the fully professional teacher exacerbates the assaults on freedom which the custodial school involves, leaves untreated the injuries to attitude and ego which much of mass education renders inevitable, and leaves to chance the kinds of interventions by teachers that open minds and enhance self images. Therefore, the teaching profession must continue its negotiations with society in behalf of more perfect education towards children. Teaching is definitely a matter of life and death. It should be entrusted only to the most thoroughly prepared professionals.[5]

More recently, Benjamin Bloom, a University of Chicago researcher, acknowledged that because of their background many children come to school lacking in the "prerequisites" of learning, but concludes that virtually all children can be taught everything that the schools have to offer so long as appropriate methods are used. Fortunately, educators are not forced to choose between student background factors or school and teacher influences on learning. Instead, the task is one of better understanding the appropriate mix of these important elements in the education of youth. Such understanding can become a major determiner of the kinds of experiences appropriate to teacher preparation.

ASSESSING SCHOOL AND TEACHER VARIABLES

While opinions differ regarding the significance of school impact, there seems to be an increasing disposition to assess school and teacher influence more realistically than in the past. Enhanced appreciation by teachers and teacher educators of the influence of social and cultural factors may improve the effectiveness of formal educational efforts by utilizing home and neighborhood as allies rather than as enemies and by making the instructional and curricular adaptations which such understandings suggest.

There are some promising beginnings in research efforts to assess more realistically school and teacher variables. Fred McDonald of the Educational Testing Service[6] suggests that we can hypothesize logically the influence of teachers as accounting for about twenty-five percent of the variance in pupil achievement. Evaluating the impact of teacher performance in the context of that twenty-five percent of pupil achievement variance, rather than against the total variance generated, provides a set of expectations for teacher effects which are more modest and more realistic.

A complication in judging teacher effectiveness by student outcomes results from the reality that student performance in different curriculum areas is differenmtially effected by background characteristics. A recent International Education Association (IEA)[7] cross-cultural study of student achievement suggested that student background characteristics such as intelligence and social class "are so powerful in accounting for student achievement in subjects like reading and social studies that there may not be enough variance unaccounted for in the performance of students to attribute to the influence of teachers." In other curriculum areas like physics, chemistry, French, Spanish, and geometry, student background accounts for much less variance. According to Berliner[8] this fact does not mean that socio-economic status and intelligence are unrelated to performance in science, foreign language, or mathematics. It simply means that the influence of those background factors is much less, leaving more variance potentially attributable to school and teacher effects.

Teacher effectiveness is often not stable from one subject to another and from one observation period to another. Berliner estimated that the mean correlation between measures of teacher effectiveness obtained two or more times is about .30. A study focused on predominantly primary age children tested with standardized reading and mathematics achievement tests, reported that twenty-eight percent of the teachers were consistent in their effects on students three years in a row, while forty-nine percent of the teachers were inconsistent in the patterning of their residual scores over time.

Another problem in attempting to link teacher effectiveness to student performance is that several major outcomes must be evaluated simultaneously. According to Peck,[9] "These include subject matter mastery, coping skill, handling problems resourcefully, development of study work habits, sustained interest in further learning, and realistic self respect."

Also complicating the assessment of teacher effectiveness on the basis of student outcomes are the reactions of individual students to different kinds of teaching. Peck suggests that there are important variances in the dynamics of the learning process among students of unlike cultures. No single style of teaching works equally well with all of them. Berliner supports Peck's views,holding that all teachers know that some of the things they do will not be effective with some of the children they teach. "Most teachers recognizing this problem customize their behavior as best they can, to fit the individual styles of students."[10] It seems clear that designing more effective teaching and teacher preparation requires a model that examines the interacting effects of teaching strategies and student characteristics on the multiple outcomes of instruction.

Another significant factor in assessing teaching effectiveness is the student's perspective on events that impinge upon him or her in the classroom. These may be either events designed or structured by the teacher or events generated by broader community or societal circumstances, for example, tensions associated with anti-busing demonstrations. Berliner suggests that "researchers do not know how much of what is called skilled teaching is even perceived by the learner. From the learner's perspective perhaps 'analysis' and 'synthesis' level questions are not distinguishable. Students may differentiate only 'memory' and 'thinking' questions . . . . Students exposed to variables they cannot perceive or to variables they believe to be unimportant may be unaffected by such variables."[12] Further, significant current events may so capture students' interests or may so influence the atmosphere in which learning is to take place that what would under other circumstances be perceived as important and worthy of effort may become peripheral.

A related point involves the maturity level of the student. Instructional efforts associated with differentiating types of data or sources of evidence, for example, may be effective with students at one maturity level and quite ineffective at another. Thus a teacher's proficiency may not be supported by student outcomes in a given instance because of variations in student maturity--gaps in the student's previous learnings--that prevent his making use of distinctions the teacher is encouraging him to employ, or because distractions generated by the emotional press of other events.

These variables suggest another element, the effect of students' behavior upon the behavior and performance of teachers.[12] Teachers clearly play their roles differently in relation to variations in student behavior. Such a variation in roles may be viewed as a virtue in the sense that it permits teacher accommodation to pupils, but it represents an obstacle to obtaining a stable measure of what a teacher is capable of doing.

Yet another complication associated with determining teaching effectiveness by student outcomes relates to the institutional supports or obstacles which are present. A teacher with both the competence to do an effective job of individualizing or personalizing instruction may find that the system in which he or she functions is unconcerned with or worse, actively hostile to, such efforts. The same teacher in another school or community context might be able to do much more toward inducing significant student learning outcomes because of the presence of strong social or institutional supports.

Using student outcomes as a basis for designing teacher preparation is further limited by the time intervening. For prospective teachers engaged in a preservice preparation program, significant student outcomes are likely to become discernible long past the deadline for recommending a student for intial certification and employment. Some of the most significant strengths or deficiencies of teachers working full time in classrooms with children will not be discernible at the conclusion of a teaching unit or school year, but at some subsequent point.

SOME PROMISING LINKS

The foregoing cataloging of difficulties might result in the conclusion that looking for measures of teaching effectiveness in student outcome is futile. However, a comprehensive review of research on teacher effects carried out by Rosenshine and Furst identified some eleven categories of teacher behaviors seemingly linked to student achievement. Five of the categories identified were seen as having strong research support, the remaining six were judged to have weaker support in research. Those in the first category included clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task-oriented behaviors, and student opportunity to learn criterion material. Those in the second category for which research supports were less strong were use of student ideas and general indirectness, criticism, use of structuring comments, types of questions, probing and level of difficulty of instructions.[13]

There are, to be sure, criticisms to be raised about the research methodologies in a number of the studies reported. If, however, the lack of complete assurance about the impact of teacher behavior causes us to ignore promising alternatives and--while attempting to refine our systematic study of them--fail to make use of these insights we have, we are unlikely ever to build a systematic structure for schooling and for teacher education.

From the Coleman report, perhaps the most extensive attempt ever made at assessment of the nation's entire educational system, as well as from studies by Bowles, Bowles and Levin, Hanushek, and Guthrie, the teacher's verbal ability is identified as the most significant school variable in explaining student achievement. Guthrie[14] suggests that we need to view teachers' verbal ability, however, as a "proxy" measure for a number of related skills and qualities rather than considering it a single factor.

> If the measure of verbal ability is taken to represent the general intelligence level of the teachers, the finding can be construed to mean that an intellectually facile instructor is more adept at tasks such as finding means to motivate students, adapting materials to their ability levels and communicating in ways which make the subject matter more understandable. This is an interpretation which is totally consistent with the observations and conventional wisdom of untold thousands who have themselves been teachers or who have supervised teachers.

Commenting on the significance of the verbal ability of the teacher as found in the report on Equality of Educational Opportunity, Mood[15] suggests a list of teacher attributes that might conceivably be as important to learning as understanding the meaning of words. The six broad headings under which he grouped a much larger number of specific attributes are:

1. Dedication to the educability of all children
2. Ability to communicate
3. Ability to motivate
4. Ability to organize and manage a class
5. Ability to create learning experiences
6. Knowledge of a chosen field in which to teach.

Much more could be said about teacher qualities and practices that influence student learning but time restraints necessitate our turning to another facet of our knowledge base in teacher education. Before doing so, however, we should recognize that hard research data on teaching effectiveness is presently insufficient to provide unequivocal answers to issues that confront teacher educators with respect to student selection and retention, program development and implementation, and certification and accreditation standards. Most of us need no reminding, however, that we cannot postpone activity in any of these arenas awaiting unequivocal answers. We will need to seek further bases for decisions in expanded efforts at achieving professional consensus through more systematic analyses of our experience. We will need to continue our use of logic in seeing implications for teacher education in the clarification of teacher roles and in the interpretation of learning results. We will need, also to redouble our efforts at generating a conceptual framework for research on teaching and learning that will make more efficient use of resources available for research than is the case with our present fragmented approach.

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

What do we know and what do we need to know about the students enrolled in teacher education?

Although recent statistics indicate a significant reduction, just a few years ago a large segment of the student population of many colleges and universities--frequently between one-third and one-half was enrolled in programs leading to teacher certification. Admission standards for teacher education programs in most institutions have been quite low, often requiring academic performance little different from that which would be necessary for the student to graduate. As a consequence, the intellectual ability of students preparing for teaching has been mediocre, at least as measured by certain standardized tests. For example, "in 1968, undergraduate education majors ranked lowest in sixteen professional categories on the Educational Testing Services' Graduate Record Examination, reaffirming similar rankings in 1952 and 1964."[16] While test scores and grade point averages are not the only factors in assessing a student's potential for a career in teaching, it appears reasonable to expect that persons charged with the intellectual development of others would themselves be more than ordinarily skilled in the intellectual processes. Yet when asked what should be the major criterion for admission to teacher education programs, Ohio teacher educators ranked capacity to work with children, emotional maturity, and professional commitment well ahead of grade point average.[17] Most thoughtful educators would agree that each of these criteria is important to successful teaching and that it is the use of such a combination. The difficulty of securing valid measures of emotional stability and the increase in legal challenges to college admission, employment, and certification requirements cause many teacher educators to avoid venturing into the realm even though most of them will agree on its central importance. Teachers who use students to meet their own psychological needs rather than viewing teaching as a means of responding to needs of the learner are likely to be contributing to the "incremental death" to which we referred earlier. In many instances, however, legal counsel encourges teacher educators to make use of such criteria but shore up their procedures associated with these by making them public and by including group review of individual decisions with provision for appeal. An increasing number of preparing institutions are expecting students to present some evidence of involvement with children in a group learning situation prior to admission to teacher education programs. Such evidence would seem to bear on both a concern for professional commitment and the capacity to relate effectively to young people.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CONTENT AND STRUCTURE

Once again, time forces us to move on to another broad question: what are the implications of what we know about the role of the teacher for the content and organization of teacher education programs?

Evidence seems to suggest that there are certain broad, generic qualities associated with teaching which if developed can provide the underpinnings for effective teaching in a variety of situations.

Popham,[18] discussing minimum competencies needed recommended three:

> 1. Teachers must be able to achieve prespecified instructional objectives with diverse kinds of learners.
>
> 2. Teachers must be able to both select and generate defensible instructional objectives.
>
> 3. Teachers must be able to detect the unanticipated effects of their instruction.

He suggests that the three may be used as guiding goals for either preservice or inservice teacher education with rather modest changes in the strategies for promoting them.

But what of the mix between theoretical and applied studies and between generic and specific learnings? Does research, or logical, or professional consensus respond to these questions? Much evidence from learning theory supported by our collective experience suggests that concepts are best learned when their applications can be demonstrated in specific situations. If this assumption is valid, it leads logically to a conclusion that specific situations and learning should be a part of initial teacher preparation but the principal function of such specific experiences at this point should be that of illuminating broader concepts. Effective teachers interpret classroom events by means of theoretical knowledge but gain an appreciation of the significance of key concepts as they see them applied in school situations.

Much evidence from studies in teacher education suggests that student teaching is viewed by students as the most important and most relevant part of their preparation experience. Given the frighteningly public nature of teaching and the opportunities it creates for exposure of ignorance or awkwardness, there is little wonder that prospective teachers should make such an evaluation. Beginning teachers need to be equipped with "survival techniques"--practical, classroom skills that enable them to cope with the essentials of managing the learning environment. It is only after they develop a decent level of confidence regarding their proficiency in these matters that they can be expected to give much attention to long range planning, diagnosis, adaptations, etc. But survival skills are not enough. Beginning teachers need the foundational underpinnings that will enable them to understand and interpret the maze of specific data about teaching and learning to which they will be exposed as new teachers. We cannot permit preservice programs to focus only on situational learning, as if they described adequately what teaching is about. Instead we must use student teaching and a carefully designed sequence of field experiences to illuminate the central concepts of teaching.

Reality insists, however, that we recognize that teachers teach in particular communities, particular schools, and in certain classrooms to specific children. When and how should teacher education accommodate to that reality? Unless we restrict or otherwise reduce mobility among teachers it is hard to imagine colleges or universities being able to prepare teachers for highly specific groups or individuals or community settings.

Does this mean that professional education should be abandoned prior to employment and assigned instead to school systems where training can relate directly to the needs and procedures of that school-community? Or does it mean instead that generic teacher learnings provided in preservice programs need to be applied on the job with the assistance of a school oriented program of inservice education?

Unfortunately, the inservice education efforts of most school districts have been minimal, fragmented, and lacking in any long range design. Don Davies, USOE Associate Commissioner, testifying before a Senate sub-committee on education in 1967, characterized inservice teacher education as "the slum of American education--disadvantaged, poverty striken, neglected, psychologically isolated, riddled with exploitation, and broken promises, and conflict."[19]

The same assessment was made more recently by Roy Edelfelt of the NEA, holding that "inservice education has been the neglected stepchild of teacher training."[20] Yet the need for quality inservice education programs is greater than ever. With greater stability of experienced teachers in classrooms, changes in knowledge, in the tasks assigned to the schools, and in the instructional methods and materials available, must be accommodated by inservice education and continuing professional development programs which reflect these changes.

IN CONCLUSION

The Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching of AACTE[21] stressed the importance of a knowledge base or "professional culture", holding that "to fail to develop principles, concepts, and theories, and to validate practice is to restrict the occupation to the level of a craft. . ." Without a shared, systematic, and scientific knowledge base for pedagogical decisions. . . teachers remain forever captives of limited personal experience, whether their teachers' or their own." While teaching continues to lack a precise, well-defined professional culture, there is promise of an awakening sense of need for such. Studies such as those reported and many others which could not be mentioned document at least the presence of an encouraging beginning. Teacher education will assist our profession to fulfill its vital cultural responsibility by viewing teaching". . . through a prism of doing, being, and knowing."[22]

FOOTNOTES

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TOWARD CHALLENGING PEAKS:

EDUCATION PERSONNEL FOR ALTERNATIVE FUTURES

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Teachers must be among the guides to the future, co-inventors with colleagues and citizens. They must be courageous, inventive, eager people striving upward to new achievements. Years ago Sir Edmund Hillary captured the minds of people around the world through his successful struggle to reach the top of Mount Everest. Why? His response, "I don't like being bored. I have a strong urge to make things happen--not just wait for them to happen."[1]

Hillary notes that the conquest of fear is rewarding. In mountain climbing and in facing other challenges, fear is normal. Overcoming it is a good experience: "It's a challenge, and overcoming it can make you more alive."[1] This is a clue about the kinds of education personnel needed in the future, even more than today. People who are stretching their minds and muscles, experiencing the exhilaration of climbing to peak experiences are the kinds of people who can excite the young about their futures.

The search for peak experiences can bring people together, and bring out the best within them. Just before climbing to the top of Mount Everest, the Sherpa guides sang a song of fellowship forged by hardship and suffering, by the satisfaction of overcoming and of achieving:

> Oh my brothers,
> I can see the reflection
> Of the white Himalayas,
> On the night of the full moon
> As we sit on this mountain pass.
> How can we ever forget
> The song we sing tonight?
> How to forget, my brothers,
> How to forget?[2]

Contrast that spirit with the whining, complaining person who finds all sorts of reasons for failing in the present and who lacks confidence in the future. The point is made humorously in a "Peanuts" comic strip:

> Sally is disgusted with a "C" grade she's receiving in art class. The project was wire sculpturing. She asks indignantly about others who should share the blame: the teacher who taught the technique, the parents who selected the dry cleaning place where the hangars came from, the dry cleaning establishment which originally bought the hangers, the manufacturer of the hangers, and so forth.

Sally probably could have found other justifications for her mediocre performance. All of us often use rationalization rather than reasoning to explain our predicaments. We blame others. We call this technique "passing the buck," and we can always find someone to blame--or share the blame--for today's world. That world, after all was yesterday's future. We often don't like it. We wish the world would slow down, to make it more manageable for us to adjust to. We don't like what Alvin Toffler has termed "future shock".

No matter how we react to change, or blame others for it, it's with us. The rate and extent of change accelerates all the time. One high school speaker highlighted the magnitude of change when he noted some of the kinds of changes experienced by the class he was addressing:

> At the age of four, when the graduate was in nursery school, there was the erection of the Berlin Wall and its subsequent Big Four crisis, and the threat of world war.
> At age five, when the graduate was in kindergarten, there was the Cuban missile crisis, a fearsom confrontation between the USA and USSR, and potentiality for holocoust.
> At age eight, the world's first orbiting persons.
> At age nine, 570,000 U.S. troops in Viet Nam, and the growing division of the nation.

At age eleven, the first moon landing. The objectives set by President Kennedy only a decade earlier became a triumph of science and technology, as well as national will.

At age fourteen, President Nixon's cold-war-thawing trips to mainland China and Soviet Union.

At age sixteen, the world's first oil embargo, the resignation of President Nixon--two events which shook Americans accustomed to thinking of themselves as politically stable and economically self-sufficient!

At age seventeen, conviction of Watergate defendants; collapse of U.S.-supported governments in Viet Nam, Laos, and Cambodia.

At age eighteen, threatened default of New York City; independence of Angola and Mazambique--virbually the last of European colonies in the world.

Change is occuring all the time, and adults tend to resist it. Margaret Mead long ago noted the generation gap separating the young from the old--a two generation differential. What would she say now? Adults, including those working in the schools, tend to have mindsets developed in simpler times.

Grandma Moses, starting her painting when she was older than most of us, depicted "the good old days" in stark simplicity. You could see the whole community in her paintings of American village life. Community life was bound together by homogeneous values, behavior was controlled by the total community which practiced values for all ages and situations. Work was understandable and essential for individual and societal well being. Transportation was limited, as was communication; hence, people knew where home was and were kept close to its controlling discipline and supportive caring. Change was gradual, obvious, and understandable.

Even in contemporary America, with its vaunted rate of change, what has been commonly called progress, the changes have been slow in bursting on the visible screen of the Nation's living stage. A promotional flyer for a book on the future demonstrates the point well:

> In the past, the public seldom heard about technological advances until they suddenly burst upon society in full bloom. For example, the idea for frozen foods originated in 1908, but the foods themselves weren't introduced to the public until 1923, fifteen years. Television, conceived in 1884, didn't hit our living rooms until 1947, more than a half century later.

Instant coffee originated in 1934 and made the supermarket shelf in 1956. Photography, conceived in 2782, wasn't realized until 1838.[3]

MORE CHANGE FASTER: WITH GREATER IMPACT

It is not necessary to elaborate on a host of changes which have been predicted for the future within our lifetimes. To assure that we have an adequate grasp of the magnitude of the new world which faces us, let me cite a few of the changes which will measurably change the role of the classroom teacher: More and more changes will occur at faster rates than we experienced in the past:

Nuclear-powered artificial hearts expand slightly (adult education too experiences tremendous growth as people live longer)
High protein, low-cost food made from peanuts, and other sources (less starvation and more children to educate unless population adopted around world)
Portable telephones and dial-a-computer (student access to huge data banks, with dramatically different roles for educators)
Disposable books and microfiche (permitting students to have acces to huge store of knowledge; eliminating need for teachers to dispense information).

Streamlined subways, from New York City to Los Angeles--2500 miles--in 21 minutes (possibility of getting students into different experiences, rather than reading about them or seeing them on TV)

Tests to measure intelligence by eye responses (an additional means of diagnosing human potentiality and prescribing learning)[4]

Large books of predictions on the future are available. These are only a few examples to dramatize how different the very near future will be. Sharing some predictions does not mean that I believe all of them. Nor do I have a time line for their exact fulfillment. I am sure that massive, rapid changes are inevitable. I want educators to be among the most knowledgeable about them!

A CONCISE SCENARIO OF THE FUTURE

Predictions about the world of the future are unending. Many of them are exotic, largely unrelated to the world of education. Some are downright frightening, like the one that within nine short years 35 countries will be able to make atomic bombs--that the madness of some leader may result in their use.[5]

For educators, there are broad grouping of likely events which can be converted into implications for teaching and learning. I want to examine a few of the broad topics and raise questions about some of their meanings. Hopefully, this process will suggest how education futurism relates to the total curriculum.

1. Pragmatic and changing values.
   Societal values will be created by shifting power blocks, and those that are used will be negotiated on the basis of shifting circumstances. The mass media will be used to create and maintain some degree of public acceptance of the negotiated values. The media will also act as a hypnotic agent, dulling concern and opposition. There may well be a Roman bread and circus approach to keep the people reasonably contented with their mindlessness and social uselessness.

The negative aspects of these kinds of predictions are not inevitable. Educators must raise and answer vigorously questions such as: (a) How can education help individuals attain personally meaningful values, without indoctrination? (b) How can learning contribute to effective operation of reasonably autonomous individuals within the different power groups of which they are a part? (c) How can education help people to maintain individuality at all, as they are bombarded by the media and pressured by powerful groups? The answers to these and other important questions will in large measure determine the future of American society. Values clarification will become increasingly important in the schools.

2. Increasing tendency toward hedonism. Relatively freed from fear and deprivation, there will be a tendency toward a somewhat energetic search for pleasure. The sports equipment business already is in the top ten range. Some will "sell their souls" for new thrills and cater to satisfaction of whims. Drugs will be used increasingly. Excessive rewards in salaries and recognition will go to those who dispense thrills and satisfactions.

   Questions should be raised now about the inevitability of such predictions. Successfully addressing them, educators can help to move the society into constructive channels: (a) What can be done to create attitudes and skills supportive of constructive leisure? (b) What can be done to build and maintain strong moral, mental, and physical fiber--the kind that create a strong rather than a self-indulgent society?

3. Relative absence of fear as a motivation in human behavior.

In the United States and in the so-called developed nations of the world, fear will be minimized as a motivating force. People will be guaranteed at least minimal food, shelter, clothing, and medical care. Fear will be almost lost as a historical motive for working, saving, and growing in competence and skills. Certainly this is progress for civilized people, but the point is that without fear as a motivator, our society will be different and steps must be taken to find socially productive alternatives to fear and its correlary, the threat of punishment. Important questions should be raised and answered to avoid the extreme excesses of freedom of fear and of punishment for nonproductivity--two prime movers of men and women in the long history of American religious and secular life. Questions include: (a) What kind of positive motivation can be developed in all citizens--the kind which would lead to what Abraham Maslow calls self-actualization? (b) What can be done to create attitudes and skills suitable for constructive recreation, the arts, and community services? (c) What can be done to improve the overall quality of life, in tandem with quantitative increases?

4. Difficulties for political democracies. They will be further decreased around the world. The United States will feel increasingly impotent. Elitist power brokers will make decisions, based on their monopoly of information, resources, and technical skills. Those with strong work ethics will be especially advantaged in manipulating power. They will not be lulled into searches for pleasure and ease. The majority of people will be to grasp the coimplexities of issues facing

leads to my basic claim: We should be preparing active guides, a role which requires that we become futurists. We should be alert to the kinds of forecasts noted, and additional broad ones such as:

1. That multiculturalism will be the predominant pattern, as vestiges of the old melting pot theory are removed.

2. That population will continue to outstrip sensible limits, although completely effective birth control processes are available.

3. That artificial organs, medication, nutrition, and preventive medicine will steadily increase the age limits of life and increase the percentage of people who are old.

4. That transportation and communications capabilities will pretty much destroy contemporary concepts of community, lifestyles, political organization, and so forth and open up many opportunities for education, and brotherhood.

5. That many advances in energy generation and utilization will free people from most hard work--and indeed do most of it.

6. That explorations of space and the oceans will create opportunities for people and also set into motion many problems with environmental quality.

The current rate of change is fast and pronounced. Education personnel should be among those looking forward to the future. They should be among societies shapers of that future, actors as well as reactors. Too often educators have overstressed their conserving role, and underplayed their resposibilityt in leading the nation to its new frontiers. They should be among the leaders who can help people who are less confident, that is, those who move toward the future with weak resigination, in fear, and with retrospective of the so-called "good old days".

Particularly important is the educator's role in helping the young anticipate the future, for that's where their lives will be spent. Educators can serve as a valuable bridge between past, present, and future--if they have balanced views about all three time frames. They can pass on meaningful aspects of the past and present, in effect, chart the way to help all enter unknown and sometimes troubled waters. Educators should not be revolutionaries; they ought to be steadfast, yet dynamic evolutionaries who keep the society vital, changing, and strong.

Education personnel with such balance can help the nation prepare for changes which are supportive of the emerging American promise, redirect those probable changes which are not totally desirable, and block emerging change which are contradictory to what the Nation wants to become. Education personnel should be the people who know what the changes are likely to be, have the skills in moving sensibly toward tho future, and a vision of what that future can and should be.

To function in these diverse ways, educators need a monitoring system as the future comes toward us, one day at a time. Essential information for leadership for the future includes:

> Broad changes in the total society likely or highly probably;
>
> Specific kinds of changes likely or highly probably;
>
> Education implications for nursery-elementary-secondary students;
>
> Implications for pre and inservice education personnel development;
>
> Implications for space, equipment, materials, and methodology; and
>
> How education fits into the total changing societal-world picture.

The person monitoring the future as it unfolds is likely to be conservative, for he or she does not want others to smile knowingly about the "ivory tower" world of education. Prophecies tend to be dismissed and prophets rejected. Jules Verne was a writer who was

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prophetic, decades ahead of his times. He painted vivid pictures of underwater and space machines. He saw far beyond his times. Today others are able to paint different scenarios of the near and far-distant future as seen through the eyes of science as well as science fiction, and in many other ways of "knowing". Too many timid persons are attracted to teaching; too many others become timid and uncertain as they teach.

Understandably, some will be overly concerned with the accuracy of the predictions made about the future--and to lose sight of the general thought patterns being shared. Even if only a few of futuristic predictions materialize, even at an incomplete level, education will have to change greatly. Different kinds of education positions and people will be needed. There will be a need for risk takers and innovators, more proactive persons and fewer reactive ones. The society will have to learn to take some risks and to reward education personnel who are wishing to move into new frontiers. Our nation's history has been made by such people. There will be mindboggling necessity of preparing pre-service personnel for dynamic roles; even more mindboggling necessity of preparing preservice personnel for dynamic roles; even more mindboggling is the necessary retraining of millions of in-service personnel several times during their professional careers. The adult learning guide of the future will have to be more of a learner than those he guides!

Some of today's conditions should create openness to some proposed increases in educators' roles. There is, after all, a surplus of teachers. This has created great uncertainty at both the elementary, secondary, and collegiate levels. Futuristic predictions are that there will be more adult education, more training people for parenting, more nurseries for the young, more utilization of varied sites for learning, and more effective service to the handicapped. The futuristic predictions call for education personnel preparing to serve women and minorities more effectively, to prepare for collective bargaining with diverse community groups to assure adequate resources for education. There are some very positive aspects of the future. There are great challenges. Educators should be challenged and stimulated to stretch their minds and increase their competence to assure that the future is made from the alternatives now open to us. How can educators be anything other than futurists?

BROAD RESPONSIVE ROLES FOR EDUCATORS

The exact roles of education personnel are not clear in crystal balls. Hopefully, the profession of teaching will be on stronger research and theoretical underpinnings than it is now. Nevertheless, certain predictions can be made about the kind of education personnel required for effective functioning in the future to a greater extent than now. Even if you reject many or most of the possible futures facing our society, the following thoughts seem to be valid. Teachers should be prepared for several kinds of roles.

1. Values clarifiers and developers.
   Individuals in a complex, changing world require internally stable values. Individuals exposed to subtle and open manipulation through media and group interaction need an internal gyroscope in order to maintain uniqueness, dignity, and worth. Children and youth need help in clarifying personally meaningful values to guide them now, and they need to learn the processes of values clarification on a continuing basis. The role will be an increasingly important one in the future.

2. Learning diagnosticians and prescription specialists. As the nature of knowledge changes--essentially changing in nature and quantity-teachers can no longer maintain the role of knowledsge dispenser, for there will be too much and it will be too transitory. They will become more diagnostician and prescription specialists helping students to learn the processes of learning, the sources for learning ideas and information, and learning problems to be corrected. Freed of the drudgery of dispensing facts, educational personnel will be able to individualize their relationships and help students to develop attitudes, motivations, and competences which will help them be learners for a lifetime.

3. Resource finders. With instruction widely individualized, education personnel will be specialists in helping learners find the appropriate ideas and information which both they and the society find essential at a given time. The challenge will be in selecting the best sources for each individual, for the whole world will be at learners' fingertips including whole data bases such as the Library of Congress. Freed of the concept that learning takes place in school buildings, personnel will help learners range throughout community and beyond to find resources to which students can go for varying time periods. Materials, equipment, people, places, and things will be resources for schooling. Computerized records can help education personnel to monitor learning progress and problems, to assure that a comprehensive learning plan is developed and carried out.

4. Interdisciplinary learning specialists.
Conscious that all the learned disciplines contribute to learning, education personnel will be specialists in aiding learners to master the ways of knowing of the different academic specialisties and of using the resources of those specialists. Clearly, education personnel will have to be among the most educated persons;

they will be specialists in helping learners to use the vast store of knowledge and ideas available; they will help all to synthesize the varied disciplines.

5. Community learning facilitators. Education personnel will not only know educative resources within the community, but they will also be teachers of adults as well as children and youth. When they help the total community continue lifelong learnings, they will create an atmosphere which is supportive of motivation to learning achievement among the children and youth. Ultimately some of the artificial barriers between young and old will be lowered, as both become involved in the excitement of living and learning. Change will be so rapid and extensive that children, youth, and adults will necessarily be learners for a lifetime! The concept of community education should rapidly replace present "schooling."

6. Human relations developers. Transportation and communications capabilities will bring people so close together that they will have to master ticklish human relations skills. Importantly, they will learn to appreciate diversity and to benefit from cultural differences. The world's cultures will infuse the total curriculum, and will increase

awareness of each learner's unique subculture. Exposed to others' cultural values, learners will be helped to understand and appreciate their own. The continued development of urban sprawl, with masses of people stretching for hundreds of miles, makes human relations competence essential for students and education personnel alike.

. Career and leisure counselors. More and more work will be done by machine, and controlled by computers. Fewer and fewer people will have long hours of work. Teachers, therefore, will have an important responsibility of helping the young to become wise users of time, for constructive recreation, culture, community activities, and intellectual growth. Properly used, time will be available to create a nation of unbelievable richness. Teachers will be among those striving to create something comparable to the golden age of Athens. Leisure is an indispensable element in such an age; teachers will try to assure that its potentialities are realized. Career counseling will be complex and significant and work conditions change, as jobs emerge, and as attitudes fluctuate. Future workers should be helped to anticipate their roles under changing conditions--and new kinds of jobs and roles. Additionally, they should learn attitudes, facts, and competences which could help them work within agencies and companies to improve the working environmental quality, the quality of products and services, and the quality of human relations among peers. High quality living will be as important an objective as making a living.

8. Profession builders and leaders. The complexity of the teaching and learning processes will stimulate continuing efforts to create an art and science of teaching, far beyond what we have now. The profession will have to be competent and productive if the community is to accept its leadership. Professionals will have to learn to be responsive to the society and responsible to it. The school guide of learning will become more valued as more and more persons are involved in different kinds of learning activities--in fact most people will be students. As the society's teaching and learning specialists, educators will be valuable and valued.

Users of futuristic processes.
Educators will be among the specialists who monitor forthcoming change and needed responses to them. The monitoring system will enable the society to prepare intelligently for change, to thwart some of them, and substitute others. Education personnel will help students to become pragmatic and competent futurists, so that they can maintain individuality and democratic processes. Educators will be leaders in creating directions the Nation will take in the future. They will be seen as conservers of the best of the past; equally important they will be inventors with other citizens of the new directions to be taken. Education personnel will help children, youth, and adults to understand democracy's unique capability to respond to change and to direct that change. Education personnel will find that one of the keys to their effectiveness will be their ability to be futurists of vision and vigor. Being futurists, educators in elementary, secondary, and collegiate settings will be protected from professional future shock.

EDUCATION'S "PRODUCTS" FOR A SUCCESSFUL FUTURE

The broad picture of future society, world, and education can be painted now. We need a forward looking society and teaching profession.

Education in the past often was bound up in past and present. Visions of what can be are equally important ingredients in the educational program. To some extent positive and realistic images of the future are self-fulfilling prophecies. Prophets have long known that a people without vision perish.[6]

The future of our society can be bright. School personnel prepared for future settings will deem successful if their learners are:

> Creative individuals, adventuresome and adaptable to changing conditions, able to maintain their individual character, dignity and worth and able to function within and make a coon to the larger society--including ability and tendency to shape directions the society takes.
>
> Able to diagnose individual and social problems and prescribe action to remove or alleviate problems and to move toward positive alternatives.

Masters of creative and productive group relationships--leading where appropriate and acting as a follower in others-- in both cases in a manner which contributes to individual and social well being.

Inclined to make contributions to group well being and sufficiently wise and competent to follow through with action; able and inclined to encompass to a reasonable degree the total human community.

Trained in basic skills and in the ways of the varied disciplines; able to diagnose for themselves basic and broader skills needed for effective personal, social, and vocational-professional functioning; and knowledgeable about how the totality of human learning fits together to build a good life for all.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP

Concluding is not easy, for there is no neat package that wraps up the future's story. Granted the complex challenges of those alternative future, it is easy to panic and it is equally easy to write scenarios that are too far out about the possible positive futures. Educators, must be essentially idealistic realists neither too optimistic nor too pessimistic. The president of the World's Future's Society raised some bases for optimism in an address to his group:

> The human race has an opportunity during the next 25 years to get its house in order and prepare the way for worldwide peace, prosperity, and progress. But if current trends are allowed to continue unchecked, human suffering and degradation may soon reach heights never before witnessed in history. The civilization that mankind has created during the last 5,000 years can easily be smashed by the tremendous social and technological forces at work. Thus, the next 25 years is a period of momentous opportunity and danger.[7]

Education personnel have always been guardians of civilization. In the future this role will be even more important. That human civility is fragile is pointed up in a true story from a previously humane tribe in East Africa. The people had been untouched by war, pollution, and over-population. Then catastrophe removed their humaneness when the government in the 1960's decided to turn the tribe's idyllic home valley into a national park--and then prohibited the tribe from hunting there. British anthropologist Colin Turnbull described scenes such as:

> Villagers shrieking with delight as a child crawled toward a burning coal and picked it up.
>
> Villagers locking a 12 year old retarded girl in a hut until she died--charged with sharing food with playmates.
>
> Villagers approving a chief's selling of medicine rather than giving it to his dying wife.
>
> Villagers laughing as children beat to death an elderly man. And laughing as blind people fell over cliffs.

Deprived of normal social patterns and means of building self-concepts, the tribe lost its traditional humaneness and civility. American civilization too could lose its humaneness and civility. We have potentially destablishing forces, for example, mass movements into urban areas, large scale unemployment--up to 40 percent in some communities, periodic movement of families from place to place, and mass media which seeks to entertain on a mindless level. Turnbull concluded that the veneer of humanity is very thin. There is cause for alarm in the United States, where there are many evidences of the thinness of that civilized veneer: Depersonalization, alienation, indifference to human needs and problems, and brutality.

The schools can do much to counteract decivilizing influences--visible now, potentially worse in the future. Education personnel can help communities move to a positive sense of their destiny and to move with confidence and competence toward them. Education personnel can contribute a sense of community and lead in community building.

As citizens clamor about returning to the "basics", we must help them demand forward movement to basics such as individual dignity, worth, and competence--survival itself. Together citizens and professionals must assure that skills of reading, mathematics, and other so-called basics are used for human purposes. Obviously, they are needed. Much more is required to strengthen the fabric of civilization. There is no evidence that cold, heartless nonhumans sit around amiably doing fractions and reading great literature. Of course people in the future require intellectual competences which are self fulfilling and society supportive and enriching.

Preparing for future education settings is comparable to Hillary's climb! The future is somewhat like the mountain that some 40 people in all history have climbed: shrouded in mystery, demanding, challenging, rewarding. But unlike Mt. Everest, there are many alternative peaks before us. Educators are the guides up the peaks, toughened, wise, disciplined! Like the Sherpa guides for

Hillary, we can anticipate the tired but exalted feeling which comes from triumph, from peak experiences.

Let me close with a poem I've written as a personal-professional sharing of thoughts, hopes and dreams for you and me:

"TO INVENT THE FUTURE"

I sat wondering about the future for me and you,
And pondered about futures for others too.
Questions arose in my head and mind
About alternatives futures for mankind:

Desirable?
Delightful?
Dazzling?

Then a crease crossed my forehead,
Caused by thoughts of what might lie ahead:

Disquieting and disconcerting,
Dismal and dreadful,
Demoralizing and devastating.

Maybe, I said, what's to be will be,
Whether acceptable, unacceptable; possible or inevitable--
Ordinary or extraordinary.
So what?
Why scurry? Why worry?
Just be?
Courage and will for the future came back:
We must move forward without slack!
Today's the day to rise above daily grind
To invent the future that'll nurture
Each person's body, soul, and mind!

Joel Burdin, Copyright 1977

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FOOTNOTES

[1] "PW Interview: Sir Edmund Hillary." Publishers Weekley, June 9, 1975, p. 16.

[2] Edmund Hillary and Desmond Doig. High in the Thin Cold Air (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1962.), p. 27

[3] Stephen Rosen. Future Facts. New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1976.

[4] Predictions in promotional flyer for Future Facts, a publication of the Behavioral Science Book Club, 1976.

[5] Lloyd Shearer, "Intelligence Report, " Washington Post's Parade, November 28, 1976, p. 8

[6] Joel L. Burdin. "Teacher Education in the Future." Teacher Education. Part II. The Seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1975). p. 304.

[7] Edward Cornish. Speech presented at the World Futures Society, 1975.

[8] Roger Wilkins. "A Message for Modern Man." The Washington Post, November 26, 1972. (Column based on Colin Turnbull's The Mountain People.)

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

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A set of assumptions about the education of all professional educators, especially teacher educators, will serve as a framework for consideration of this topic.

1. Development of scholarship in a professional practice requires continuous involvement in and study of that practice.

   A professional field is distinguished from other fields and from the academic disciplines by the set of phenomena or problems with which it deals. A profession can be a field of study as well as a field of practice; the basis for study in a profession is its problems of practice. Such study will draw knowledge from several disciplines, but it will generate rules and principles with particular relevance to its own practice.

2. Continuing education of professionals cannot be carried on adequately without contributions of schools, higher education institutions, and the communities they serve.

   Colleges and universities that provide training for teachers cannot make adequate provision for such training in isolation from schools and communities. Neither can supervisors, curriculum specialists, or teacher educators be adequately prepared in isolation from the institutions in which they will serve.

3. Education of professional personnel must be seen as continuous, articulated from one stage to the next.

   Such articulation in education not only provides continuity; it also makes visible and accessible to practitioners a career within professional practice.

4. Professional practitioners must be prepared to serve in settings that are characterized by challenge and change.

   New knowledge, new technologies, new organizational patterns, new partnerships are supplanting present arrangements for schooling. Both the ends and the means of education are being challenged. New forms are being created and old ones modified or discarded; new roles are emerging; new personnel are involved; and new conceptions of goals are becoming explicit. Business and industry are becoming significant partners in instructional programs in schools and in teacher education.

5. Programs of graduate professional education are in urgent need of reform if they are to lead in the advancement of ideas relevant to practice.

   Graduate professional education has responded slowly and inadequately to new demands. Experience of trainees is too often remote from problems in the real world of practice both in substance and in process. The physical and psychological distances between graduate professors of education and what goes on in schools and in preservice teacher education programs appears to increase with years of experience as graduate professors. The usual type of doctoral dissertation too frequently militates against advancing knowled practice. The course-credit syndrome often contributes to disintegration for the trainee and to misplaced emphasis in his program.[1]

The first four of these assumptions as appropriate for designing and conducting programs of initial teacher education. Implementation of such ideas is far more widespread in preservice teacher education, however, than it is in advanced programs in higher education institutions or in staff development centers where professional educators are being prepared. Indeed, there continues to be very limited attention to problems of practice in advanced programs of professional education.[2] A look at some selected illustrations of experiences designed for the education of teacher educators, based on the stated assumptions, should be useful.

It is not my intent here to provide broad admonitions nor to make general comments on the application of these principles to the education of teacher educators. Rather I am going to describe specific experiences in each of three categories. The first is called field experience in the education of teacher educators. The second is closely related to the first and I have called it the study of collaboration between agencies delivering services (professional practitioners) and universities preparing practitioners (professional educators). In the third category are illustrations of systematic analysis of supervisory behavior. These have been selected on the basis of their relevance in implementing the stated rationale for designing programs to prepare leaders in teacher education. Perhaps, even more important in their selection is the fact that these represent kinds of experiences most often lacking in advanced education of teacher educators.

FIELD EXPERIENCES IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Consistent with the assumptions stated earlier, a program to prepare teacher educators should require every participant to be associated with a field situation throughout advanced study. Accordingly, a number of field centers need to be selected and arrangements made for collaborating in the designing and conducting of field experiences for students and faculty in the program. Only one example of a field center and students' experiences in it are briefly discussed here for illustration of the kinds of field activities that would be useful for future teacher educators.

Six prospective teacher educators, participants in this program, stated as an objective for their field work, 1968-69, "to develop a model for a partnership of administrative and instructional personnel from schools, colleges, universities, and BOCES (including student teachers, beginning teachers, and auxilliary personnel) for the purpose of conceptualizing a curricular model of laboratory field experiences."[3] Among their activities, that group of six:

> Conducted meetings in each of several settings with representatives of schools, communities, and higher education institutions to talk about proposals for the improvement of field experiences in teacher education.
> Gathered and analyzed data on college programs of preparation, on school relationships in student teaching programs, on personnel involved and their attitudes toward cooperation in teacher education.

> Wrote a proposal for a series of conferences to discuss the possibility of establishing a Center for the Induction of New Teachers.
>
> Conducted the series of conferences with representatives of schools and their communities and higher education institutions.
>
> Analyzed and reported findings from all conferences.
>
> Drafted a preliminary statement of Agreements between Schools, their Communities, and Universities.

Since the initiation of that program in 1968-69, every advanced student preparing for leadership in the education of teachers, pre- and inservice, has had varied opportunities to work in the Center established by the first group of students with their adviser. The Center developed into a consortium of four school systems and their communities and four institutions of higher education. Samples of the kinds of field experiences future teacher educators have had in the Center as part of graduate study follow:

> Organized and conducted Task Forces around participating elementary schools to develop statements of goals for elementary education and to determine the qualifications of teachers to serve in the achievement of those goals.

Each workshop included representatives of schools, communities, and higher education institutions.

Planned and conducted semi-annual assemblies, with invitations to all personnel from the schools, communities, and universities who had interest in or concern about the preservice education of teachers.

Participated in the work of the Policy Board of the Center, sometimes as observer, other times as presenter of special information, often as recorder; two student participants were elected members of the Board each year; one student served as Executive Secretary of the Board each year.

Researched questions identified as urgent by the constituencies e.g., Initiating a Collaborative Arrangement; Roles and Responsibilities of Participants in Collaborative Enterprises; The Language of Coion: Who talks to Whom about What; Conditions of Success in Collaboration: A Model for Describing Conditions on Policy Boards.

Prepared and field tested instructional modules for preservice students e.g., Helping

> Student Teachers with Problem Solving Techniques; Developing Concepts of Teaching abstract Thinking of Children.
>
> Prepared a program of evaluation of teacher performances.

Many other illustrations might be given, but the above are sufficient to indicate the kinds of activities future teacher educators carry on as field experiences in this particular program. All such activities are guided by both school and university personnel. Ongoing seminars in either the field or the university provide for continuing examination of observations and questions emerging in field activities.

An evaluation by graduates, university faculty, and field personnel shows highly positive reactions to all dimensions of the program except for the amount and kind of attention given to esearch methodology and procedures. By many graduates, field experiences are viewed as a most important part of their preparation for their work as teacher educators in colleges/universities or in school systems.

One other comment must be made about the program of field experiences for future teacher educators. The impact of the program on the graduate faculty at the university has been striking. Faculty members have come closer to modeling the kinds of field relations, the emphasis on problems and issues of practice, and the skills of cooperation and communication that they say are desirable for teacher educators in undergraduate programs. The teacher of teacher educators must be a model in the same way the teacher educator is expected to be a model for his students.

THE STUDY OF COLLABORATION BETWEEN AGENCIES DELIVERING SERVICE (PROFESSIONAL PRACTITIONERS AND UNIVERSITIES PREPARING PRACTITIONERS (PROFESSIONAL EDUCATORS)

Programs to prepare practitioners in all the helping professions include, to a greater or lesser extent, a range of field experiences demanding collaboration between agencies where the professional service is delivered--hospitals, schools, churches, homes, social organizations, business, industry, government--and agencies where practitioners are educated--colleges and universities. Such experiences are called by varied names, for example, practicum, internship, observation and practice, professional laboratory experiences, or clinical experience. Although there are differences in the competencies needed by professionals delivering health services, social services, counseling services, or educational services, there is a sizeable body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes appropriate and desirable in common for all these professional practitioners.

Among the many abilities essential to those who educate practitioners in the helping professions is the ability to establish and maintain collaborative relationships with practitioners and the agencies in which they serve--to nurture conditions that facilitate widespread input into preparatory programs, to be in constant

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touch with the real world of practice themselves, and to provide for their students high quality experience in the real world of practice. Nurse educators, social work educators, counseling educators, and teacher educators, for example, ought to join forces in study of collaboration between their higher education institutions and the agencies where their graduates intend to practice.

Joseph Caruso produced a document that can serve a range of purposes in study of collaboration.[4] It consists of three panels, each depicting a set of variables relevant to effective collaboration in consortium groups. The variables, separately or grouped by panels can be used as criteria by which individuals or groups can examine character or characteristics of their behavior in collaboration encounters.

PANEL ONE: ETHOS

Mutual Trust	the confidence, faith and reliance consortium members have in each other.
Mutual Respect	the attention, concern, and consideration members possess toward each other as human beings who have unique qualities, competencies, and expertise.

Feeling of Equality	members' perception of feeling of themselves as being on "an equal footing" with other members
Values Parity	the worth and importance that consortium members place on the parity notion
Openness	the prevailing atmosphere as it encourages members to genuinely express their views, feelings, concerns, and ideas which may be conflicting with other members in a listening, understanding, receptive climate
Commitment to Change	the determination of a group to change the structure and strategy of the governing system, as well as program content and design of teacher education
Potency	the significance and meaning a consortium has for its members
Interdependence	(1) individual and institutional autonomy within a consortium, (2) the mutual dependence each individual and agency has on each other, and (3) the establishment by a consortium of its own identity

PANEL TWO: ORGANIZATION

Shared Goals	consortium members' perception of the presence of common superordinate goals
Shared Leadership	consortium members' assumption of the responsibilities of the functions of leadership
Shared Communication	(1) the adequacy of informtion flow through a communication linkage network, (2) the comprehension of what is being said or written by consortium members, and (3) the amount of interaction and communication among members
Collaborative Strategy	the adoption by the organization of a strategy which encourages members to work together, to cooperate with each other to achieve their common goals
Clarity of Role	members' comprehension, recognition, and perception of the behavioral expectations that other group members have for their office
Shared Responsibility	the responsibility felt by each member of a consortium's policy-board for achieving its goals

Needs/Rewards	the satisfying of individual and group needs by a consortium through compensation and positive reinforcement

PANEL THREE: POWER STRUCTURE

Resource Utilization	a consortium's identification and use of its resources to benefit members and to achieve organization goals
Reciprocity	(1) the presence of a group expectation which requires members to help each other, (2) the exchange and trade of resources among individuals, agencies, and institutions within a consortium to benefit each other and achieve organization goals
Influences Decisions	(1) the belief by consortium board members that they influence decisions (change or modify the attitudes and/or behavior of other members or of the organization itself so as to affect decisions) in various phases of program development, (2) the belief by consortium representatives that other board representatives influence decisions in various phases of program development

FIGURE 5

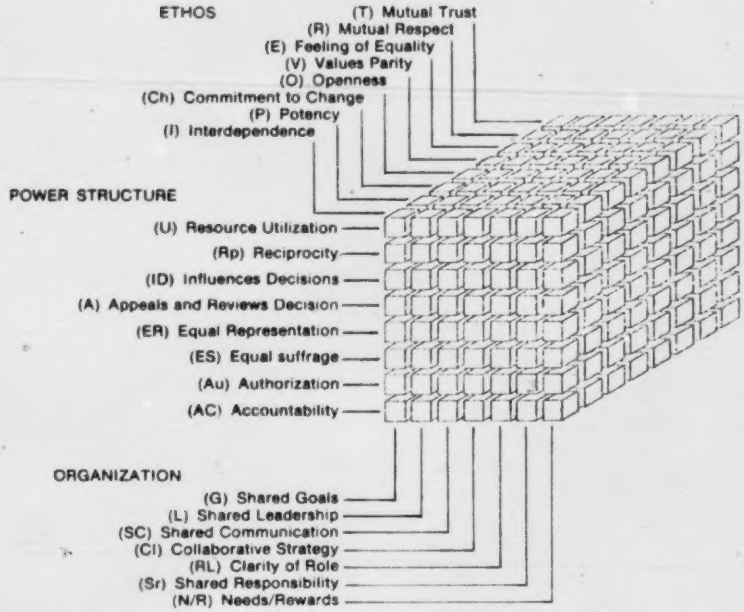

Fig. 5. A Model depicting three sets of variablkes of parity and their interrelationships in a teacher education consortium

Another approach to the study of collaboration in designing, conducting, and evaluating professional preparatory programs is found in the analysis of concrete illustrations. For example, a real and specific statement of agreements between school district, a school faculty association, and a college/university can serve as a basis for study. Using such a statement as the organizing focus of study can produce many and varied kinds of learning opportunities intended to assist the teacher educator in increasing understanding of the complexity of collaboration; in examining values, knowledge, and skills essential to contributory membership in collaborating group, in inquiring into relevant disciplines for insight and/or illumination with respect to the social-psychological dimensions of organizations separately and in concert with like and/or different organizations; and finally, in examining the self as a competent contributor in collaborative settings.

A variety of activities can be employed in movement toward the kinds of objectives indicated. Role playing; value clarification tactics; criticism of written and oral communication; observation and analysis of groups in action; consultations with specialists; data collection by interview or questionnaire; training in specific skills, such as listening, asking questions that are non-threatening; intensive study of authoritative opinion and research findings relevant to collaboration between different systems; and, of course, discussion of ideas and behavior--one's own and others'.

The BASIC PRINCIPLES identified in one such statement of agreement will serve to illustrate the kinds of questions that might be raised with regard to roles and responsibilities and the kinds of problems and issues that might become the foci of extended examination, when a case is used as a vehicle of instruction/learning.

DRAFT

Agreement between M School District, M School District Faculty Association, and Y College for a Program on Competency-Based Field-Centered Teacher Education

I. BASIC PRINCIPLES

A. M-Y Teacher Education Steering Committee (herinafter referred to as the Steering Committee)

1. Composition: equal representation from

   a. M School District Faculty Association--3 members of the professional staff designated by the Association

   b. M School District--3 administrators designated by the District Principal

   c. Y College--3 members of staff

2. Duties: the Steering Committee shall be the governing body of the M-Y field-centered program.

3. Released time: will be provided for all members of the Steering Committee for its activities or, for time beyond the contractual working day for any member of the Steering Committee the member shall be paid by either the District of the college (to be resolved between those agencies) at the rate cf 1/180 of the member's annual salary prorated for the hours worked on the basis of a seven (7) hour day.

4. Decision-making: each participating group shall have one vote. All decisions must be approved by a unanimous vote of all three groups. Once an item has been considered and rejected it may not be implemented. If any party unilaterally pursues a course of action contrary to the vote of either or both of the other parties this agreement shall be automatically terminated and any party shall have the right to immediately withdraw from the program. No party shall initiate any action having impact upon the other parties or a party

alone without first securing a unanimous vote of the parties shall be by majority determination and each party shall then cast its vote in the Steering Committee based upon that determination. No party may abstain from any vote.

5. Agenda: any member, group, or individual member of the Steering Committee may place any item upon the agenda or raise it for consideration by the committee.

6. Quorum: at least six (6) members of the Steering Committee must be present for an official meeting and those six shall represent a minimum of two members from each group. Proxy or absentee ballots shall be permitted.

7. Meetings: the Steering Committee shall determine its schedule of meetings. The meetings shall be at a place and time mutually agreed upon. The parties shall rotate the role of "host" for each meeting and the "presiding" officer shall be designated by the "host" party from its members.

8. Records: there shall be an official record made of each meeting of the Steering Committee. Such record shall be made by a member of the Committee designated by the members and shall be distributed to each member of the committee. Such record shall also be available for inspection by the parent or affiliated bodies of the groups and by the members of such bodies and of the constituent groups represented by each party.

9. Advise: The Steering Committee shall make no decision denying, limiting or altering or modifying so as to diminish or inhibit the rights of the members or constituency of any particpating group provided by practice, regulation, statute or contract. The basic rights provided students of the District or participating students of the College shall be guaranteed so that neither is denied adequate educational experiences. The advice of all relevant agencies and individuals (including the students of the District and the College) shall be sought by the Steering Committee.

Additional sections of this statement of agreements between a school district, the school district teachers' association, and a college cover the following:

Reduction in force

Materials and supplies

Adopting evaluation procedures

Teacher participation

Withdrawal rights

Compensation

Forms of compensation, by the school district and by the college

Recommendation for Certification

Using those Basic Principles from the statement of agreements, here are a few examples of what groups of teacher educators might do in study of collaboration:

> Assume the role of a college supervisor of student teachers and prepare to make a presentation to the School District, stating your reactions to the principles and rationale supporting your reactions.
>
> Organize a "mock steering committee" as prescribed in the basic principles and through discussion, attempt to develop a precise policy on such matters as:

Criteria and procedures in the evaluation of student teachers.

Responsibilities of cooperating personnel in planning with student teachers.

Interview a representative sample of classroom teachers, school administrators, and college/university personnel with regard to problems and issues they perceive in the implementation of the nine principles.

Prepare a revision of the nine principles, modifying those now in the list and adding to or deleting from the list, so that the total represents your own point of view. Provide supporting rationale for your revisions.

With a representative of each of the constituencies to the collaboration identify a major competence you believe teachers ought to have and design learning opportunities you will believe will help the novice acquire that competence.

One final example of an approach to study of collaboration in professional development programs is the use of a simple matrix where each cell includes a number of questions critical to all those

Question: In designing, conducting and evaluating professional development programs, what should be the special roles and responsibilities of the state agency, higher education institutions, schools (administrators, teachers and other specialists, the public, professional practices commissions (or licensing boards), accrediting agencies, and students in preparation?

Tasks (Illustrative Only)	State Agency	Higher Education Institutions	School Adminstrators	Teachers and Teacher Organizations	Other Specialists	The Public	Professional Practices (Licensing) Boards	Accrediting Agencies	Students Preparatio
Designing Programs Defining and validating goals, objectives, or competencies Designing learning activities Preparing/selecting materials									
Conducting Programs Teaching Supervising Counseling									
Evaluating Programs Evaluating performance of graduates Evaluating instruction Evaluating the ethos, environment Evaluating program components									
Recommending persons for licensure									
Conducting essential research									
Providing financial support									

involved in professional development programs. The task of defining roles and responsibilities is one that must be done in concert with members of all the constituencies involved in the process. It is a task that helps each individual to clarify his own understandings of his roles as well as roles of others. It forces conflict to the surface and calls for tentative resolution. Successful achievement of the task provides for a degree of security as each person goes about performing his agreed upon roles and functions. Such a task is continuing, requiring open-ended, temporary kinds of decisions to be subjected to examination in operation and modified as study suggests.

SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORY BEHAVIOR[6]

The course title reads, Supervision in Pre-service Teacher Education Programs. As one part of the work in the course, students are expected to carry on an individual project. In this regard, a statement of requirements was presented to the class as a group.

I. Select one of the following as an individual or small group project.

   A. Design, conduct, and report a mini-study (systematic inquiry) directly relevant to the supervision of preservice students in laboratory, clinical, or practicum activities.

    1. Submit a statement of your design and secure the instructor's approval before proceeding with the study.

    2. Submit a progress report, no more than two pages in length.

    3. Submit a concise written report of your study.

    4. Prepare and present to the class an abstract of your study. (You are responsible for duplicating your report so that a copy is available for each member of the class.)

3. Present to the class/small group a demonstration of a supervisor at work in a dyadic or small group setting, with an analysis of the supervisor's behavior. Your demonstration should provide (1) objective(s) of the activity--in writing; (2) rationale for the activity--in writing; (3) concrete evidence of the supervisor at work--videotape, audiotape, transcripts, etc.; (4) a system for analysis of the supervisor's behavior and the results of the analysis--in writing; and (5) conclusions based on the study of supervisory behavior (your own or someone else's)--in writing.

1. Submit a one-page statement of what you plan to do.
2. Submit a progress report, including a plan for the demonstration.
3. Present the demonstration, accompanied by the written materials noted above.

C. Design your own project, making it directly relevant to supervision of preservice students in laboratory, clin[illegible] or practicum (student teaching) activities.

1. Submit a one-page statement of what you plan to do.
2. Submit a progress report, no more than two pages in length. This report should indicate specifically what evidence you will submit to be used in evaluation of your individual/small group work.

3. Submit your evidence of achievement on the project.

The illustrations that follow are from students who selected option B, systematic study of supervisory behavior.

Example 1

Purpose:	To study the interaction between a supervisor and his supervisee in order to understand the supervisory role and its impact upon the supervisee. To observe, record, and analyze the verbal interaction between supervisor and supervisee in a small group setting.
Research design:	The methodology is based on the conception of the supervisor as teacher. The system of analysis is therefore an adaptation of the instruments for observing and analyzing teacher behavior and the teaching act to the process of the supervision of teachers. The research design is a mode of analysis we derived from considering various instruments such as Bellack's System, Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain, Flanders' System of Interaction Analysis, Amidon's Modified

Category System, and Blumberg's System for Analyzing Supervisor-Teacher Interaction.

The system created:

Categories

Structuring	Setting context for subsequent verbal behavior.
Soliciting	Directly eliciting verbal response.
Responding	Fulfilling expectations of response.
Reacting	Modifying any of the previous moves by clarifying, synthesizing, and expanding.
Positive Reinforcement	Verbal behavior which encourages and/or accepts a statement of ideas.
Negative Reinforcement	Verbal behavior which does not encourage and/or does not accept a statement of ideas.
Not codable	Confusion, silence, unclear verbal statement.
Knowledge	Any verbal behavior which emphasizes "the remembering, either by recognition or recall, of ideas, material, phenomena."

Application	"The use of abstraction in the form of general ideas, rules of procedures or generalized methods, technical principles, ideas and theories in a given situation in which no mode of solution is specific."
Comprehension	Those verbal behaviors "which represent an understanding of the literal message contained in the communication."
Analysis	"The breakdown of a communication into its constituent parts and detection of the relationships of the parts and of the way they are organized."
Synthesis	"The putting together of elements and parts, arranging and combining them in such a way as to constitute a pattern of structure not clearly there before."
Evaluation	Quantitative or qualitative judgments by use of specific criteria and standards, about the value of ideas, materials and methods, for given purposes.

A Matrix for Recording Verbal Behavior of the Supervisor in a Conference with a Student Teacher, Using the Four Moves from Bellack and the Categories in Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives

	Knowledge a	Comprehension b	Application c	Analysis d	Synthesis e	Evaluation f	Totals
1. Structuring							
2. Soliciting							
3. Responding							
4. Reacting							
5. Positive reinforcement							
6. Negative reinforcement							
7. Non-codable							
Totals							

Example 2

Purposes:

1. Observe and analyze supervisory behavior of one supervisor of a student teacher based on Cogan's model of supervision;

2. Analyze with the use of videotape a supervisory conference, its nature, its content and processes, the statuses of the supervisor and the supervisee, and the human relationship within the dyadic situation.

Methodology: Data were gathered from a series of reservations which the two members of the group made of Miss E's actual supervision of her student teacher in the different phases of supervision following Cogan-s model. These observations were followed immediately by a discussion of salient points or critical incidents that happened during the supervision session. (Peer supervision)

A videotape of a supervisory conference was analyzed according to Taba's model.

We developed this set of objectives to guide us through the analysis of the conferences.

1. To describe how the supervisor exhibits the following behaviors:
    a. Provides large quantities of data for the student teacher to organize and analyze
    b. Asks appropriate questions to elicit concept formation, interpretation of data, and application of principles

        c. Develops and promotes a cooperative atmosphere

2. To suggest how the supervisor could improve the ways in which these behaviors are exhibited.

3. To analyze the usefulness of this model in terms of the following:

    a. What competencies must the supervisor have to use these models?

    b. What functions of clinical supervision are fulfilled using the Taba model?

    c. What functions of clinical supervision are not fulfilled using this model?

Findings: (from question 2 above, as example)

1. Provide more accurate data about the lesson itself by using video and/or audio tapes that could be used during a conference.

2. Broaden the student teacher's knowledge of alternative teaching techniques and models by

providing videotapes of the behaviors of a number of other teachers.

3. Suggest that the student teacher view the cooperating teacher's behavior in some objective manner.
4. Minimize the use of verbal approvals ("right") to those concepts, generalizations, and hypotheses of the student teacher that are significant for her developing mastery of the self-supervision technique.
5. Relinquish some parts of the leadership role in planning the supervisory conference.
6. Make further efforts to negotiate with the cooperating teacher, emphasizing the needs of the student teacher in making plans and decisions regarding instructional variables.

Example 3

Influence and Control in Supervision in Preservice Education: A Self-Analytical Treatment (excerpts from report of the study)

Purpose:

The study will focus on the degree of influence and control which the writer, as supervisor, has over student teachers. These behaviors will be described by an analysis of the verbal interaction between student teachers and their supervisor during post observational conferences. The nature of this interaction will be documented in order that it serve as a basis for modification of supervisory behavior in future student teacher-supervisor encounters.

Methodology: Data Collection Procedures

The supervisor recorded sixteen post-observation conferences between the supervisor and the student teachers on audio tape.

Treatment of the Data

In 13 conferences, samples of data (five minutes each from beginning, middle, and end of conference), fifteen minutes from each conference were coded using the Blumberg Supervisor-Teacher Interaction System.

Two conferences were coded in entirety by the Blumberg System.

One conference was coded by means of a system, using parts of Bellack's Pedagogical Moves in combination with the categories from Bloom's Taxonomy.

Reliability was established on the use of the Blumberg System.

A Matrix for Recording Verbal Behavior of the Supervisor in a Conference with a Student Teacher, Using the Four Moves from Bellack and the Categories in Bloom's Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives

	Knowledge a	Comprehension b	Application c	Analysis d	Synthesis e	Evaluation f	Totals
1. Structuring	16	4					20
2. Solicting	1	1		3		1	6
3. Responding	1			1		1	3
4. Reading	1	3		1			5
5. Positive reinforcement	1	7					8
6. Negative reinforcement		1		1			2
7. Non-codable							0
Totals	20	16		6		2	44

Based upon this and other similar data, the supervisor concluded:

(examples only)

> A generally "healthy" climate was established during these conferences as indicated by a very low degree of negative social emotional behavior on the part of the student teachers and by a low amount of negative reinforcement by the supervisor.

[7] Transcript of this conference appears in Appendix D

> The supervisor spent very little time in requesting the student teachers' opinions, suggestions, or in utilizing their ideas.

Example 4

Three persons, one an experienced supervisor, one a novice supervisor, and one an observer-analyst, worked together for ten weeks. They reported:

> We began the project with three goals for ourselves as a group: (1) to work together as a team on every phase of the project, (2) to provide one another with greater objectivity than would be possible in individual supervision, and (3) to experience peer-group learning as a model which would hopefully be applicable to future supervisory situations.
>
> While both Goldhammer and Cogan postulate a number of questions which might help a supervisor to supervise himself/herself, we have developed our own informal index to apply to supervisory behavior. The index is as follows:
>
> 1. Supervisor exhibits supportive and accepting behavior.
>
> 2. Supervisor listens and responds to content level and to emotional level communication.

3. Supervisor helps the student teacher explore and clarify her own feelings.
4. Supervisor gives specific suggestions and structuring when appropriate.
5. Supervisor elicits solutions from student teacher rather than providing solutions himself/herself.

The above index was applied to numerous videotapes of supervisory conferences. Each member of the group spent time in the classroom of the student teacher and observed the environment, the classroom teacher, the pupils, and the interactions among them. After each observation by the supervisor and her conference with the student teacher, the team discussed the supervisory behavior in terms of the index they had established. A sample of videotapes was subjected to analysis by the Blumberg System; the sequence of supervisory activities was examined in terms of Cogan's steps in supervision, and each member of the team abstracted from her own experience principles to govern her own supervisory behavior in the future.

The group reported:

> Group interaction is especially important in the field of education, where learning tends to be individual, classroom teachers tend to be isolated from each other, and supervisors tend to relate very privately to teachers...We grew

> from stereotyped roles in the group, through analysis of our own interaction, to more flexible and satisfying roles. We became more sensitive, more objective about ourselves, and more free to speak our ideas honestly.

A few of the many principles each member of this peer team abstracted from their experience in study of supervisory behavior are worth noting here. It may be assumed that, because these "students of supervision" analyzed their own experience, considered what they observed and practiced in the light of recommendations made by authorities in the field and the findings reported from research, the principles abstracted will have meaning for them as they undertake supervisory functions in the initial or continuing education of teachers.

> Supervision and the supervisory process tend to be viewed by the (student) teacher as evaluation and criticism even when the clinical process of cooperative diagnosis and prescription is explained.
>
> It is difficult to diagnose and discuss a situation without using evaluative language. The use of evaluative language interfers with the clinical process and is not educational in the long run.

If a supervisor models language which stimulates the (student) teacher to examine his own ideas and make choices, the (student) teacher may begin to model this type of language himself/herself for pupils.

The supervisor must be able to collect evidence and present it in a coherent, understandable way.

The most obvious is often the most important factor in a situation and often the most overlooked.

People tend to become defensive and turn off if material is presented in critical, unsupportive, and confronting manner.

Supervisors tend to talk and give suggestions before they fully understand what the (student) teacher is talking about.

A supervisor must retain a sense of perspective and a degree of humor.

A clinical supervisor must develop not only in the (student) teacher, but in herself/himself a positive attitude toward continuing inquiry.

A supervisor must be able to link his/her prescriptions to valid predictable outcomes based on reliable research.

A supervisor must be willing to examine criticism of his/her own behavior objectively. He/she must be able to apply the clinical process to his/her own supervisory behavior by Diagnosis, Prescription, Treatment, and Evaluation and then re-diagnosis.

Each of the four examples cited has uniqueness; yet the four have in common the task of examining supervisory behavior in a specific and systematic manner. The first example proceeds from a concept of supervision as teaching and focuses on the behavior of a supervisor in a seminar situation. In it, a group of college teachers experimented wih the use of several systems for analysis of teaching behavior and finally constructed an eclectic system of their own and applied it in in-person observation as well as to videotaped recordings of the seminar.

In the second example, supervisory activities of one person were subjected to analysis by use of the steps of clinical supervision as advanced by Cogan. In this example, the supervisor decided, based on observations and discussions with the teachers in the seminar, to seminar, to test the Taba model for lifting cognitive processes in seminar discussion. The "students of the process" were then able to analyze the "treatment," that is, use of the Taba model with the seminarians.

The third example is very different from the first two. Here a supervisor undertakes inquiry into her own practice, at first without benefit of outside help or discussion. Later it became important to the supervisor to have feedback from other persons and so she submitted recordings of her supervisory behavior to a team of experts for analysis. However, it is important to note that this supervisor had very specific behaviors she wished to examine--her influence and control in conferences and/or seminars with (student) teachers. She used a range of approaches to her own inquiry. She reported that she learned things about herself that she would never have discovered in any other way.

Peer supervision is the emphasis of the fourth example. Of particular note here is the benefits that accrue from working in concert with peers and the deliberate abstracting from experience generalizations to serve as guides for behavior and study in the future.

The examples are illustrative only. They suggest that each person involved in supervision or preparing to assume supervisory functions will profit from systematic inquiry into supervisory behavior.

Appendix A

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS[a]

The Commission holds that the education of teacher educators should emerge principally from the needs of the personnel they prepare.

Teacher educators must become more knowledgeable about, and sensitive to, the relationship of their own specialty to all other specialty areas in professional preparation.

Teacher educators must become familiar with the world of the teacher and the variety of functions a teacher discharges in the school and community.

Teacher educators must be able to cope with both school professionals and the university academicians and be able to cope with the ambiguities and strains this dichotomous relationship generates.

Major program components:

an underlying conceptual and/or scientific base
an applied problem-testing and problem-solving component
technical culture which includes performance skills and professional attitudes
study of teaching in their own classrooms
understand the education processes that go on outside of the school
practice what they preach

Rigorous selection standards

Supervised college teaching internships, assistantships

Team setting and team activities

Linking research and teaching

Commitment to the professional education of teachers

Informed perspective on schools

The Commission endorses the need for continuing education for teacher educators if faculty are to be skilled in relating both to colleagues in the academic disciplines and to public school educators, talented in applying concepts of the disciplines to the resolution of school problems, capable of blending teaching and research interests so that one illuminates the other, and skilled in a broad range of instructional procedures to demonstrate exemplary teaching.

---

[1] Robert B. Howsam, Dean C. Corrigan, George W. Denemark, and Robert J. Nash, Educating a Profession (Washington, D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1976), pp. 105-111 passim.

Appendix B

COMPETENCIES*

The School Based Teacher Educator will be able to:

1. Assist teachers to develop interpersonal skills and effective communication with students, colleagues, and school constituencies.
2. Assist teachers to gather and utilize relevant data about school, classroom and community environments.
3. Assist teachers to understand and work effectively with different socioeconomic/ ethic cultural groups.
4. Assist teachers to translate knowledge of current educational research and development into instructional practices.
5. Assist teachers to develop a personal teaching style consistent with their own philosophy.
6. Assist teachers to improve their understanding of basic concepts and theories of the subjects they teach.
7. Assist teachers to understand and use techniques and instruments designed to diagnose students' academic and social development needs.
8. Assist teachers to design, develop, and maintain environments that facilitate learning.

9. Assist teachers to develop instructional goals and objectives.

10. Assist teachers to develop and/or adapt instructional programs and materials.

11. Assist teachers to select and utilize various strategies and models of teaching, e.g., concept development, inductive procedures, nondirective teaching.

12. Assist teachers to design and implement personalized learning plans.

13. Assist teachers to develop effective leadership skills.

14. Assist teachers to understand and use effective techniques of classroom management.

15. Assist teachers to evaluate instructional effectiveness by collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data on teacher student behavior.

16. Assist professors to develop, implement, and assess continuing individual professional growth plans.

17. Plan and conduct individual conferences with teachers.

18. Recognize the existence of personal problems that affect a teacher's instructional effectiveness, and initiate appropriate referral process.

19. Demonstrate effective planning, organizational, and management skills.

20. Facilitate research studies on teaching and learning.

Objectives and Indicators of Attainment

At the time of this writing more specific objectives and indicators of attainment are being developed for each competency statement by project staff and consultants. These objectives and indicators of attainment will be the basis for describing more fully competency specifications, developing SBTE training systems, and designing assessment systems.

[1] James M. Cooper, W. Robert Houston, and Allen R. Warner, "Specifying Competencies for School Based Teacher Educators Through Task, Conceptual, and Perceptual Analyses" (Houston, Texas: Teacher Center, University of Houston, 1976), pp. 19-21.

APPENDIX C

A BEGINNING IN MAKING EXPLICIT THE BEHAVIORS OF A SUPERVISOR IN A CONFERENCE WITH A STUDENT TEACHER[10]

1. Listens and responds to the talk of the student teacher

   a. Responds directly to the content and feeling of the student teacher's talk

   ....solicits more information
   ....reacts to content
   ....structures for extending the talk
       ..relates the ideas
       ..provides illustrations
           ..introduces ideas to be considered

   b. Makes reference to content of the student's talk in later conversation

2. Helps the student to discover relationships, draw tentative conclusions, and test those conclusions

   a. Identifies, with the student, specific behaviors (of the student, the cooperating teacher, the pupil(s)

   b. Solicits from the student, through questions, meanings of the specific behavior

....solicits projection of causal factors
....structures for getting relationship of specific behavior to other observed behaviors

c. Seeks to help the student discover common characteristics of several behaviors

....asks questions to help the student recall related behaviors

....introduced illustrations, episodes, instances of related behaviors
....reacts positively when student begins to see relationships
....responds to student's hunches and questions about relationships

d. Helps the student to develop hypotheses relationship amont observed behaviors

....structures so that the student understands and begins to use a language of relationships and prediction
....asks questions to assist the student in this process
....provides illustrations
....refers the student to sources of help

e. Sets up with the student situations in which the hypothesis can be tested

f. With the student examines data resulting from the testing of hypothesis

3. Probes the student's thinking about the rationale of decisions

a. Discusses his own teaching with the student

....invites the student to question what he (the teacher) did and why
....presents his reasons for what he did (or proposes to do)
...provides for cooperative examination of decisions made, rationale behind them, and their effects

b. Analyzes with the student his own teaching (the student's)

....solicits information on the why behind what the student did or proposes to do
....examines results
...solicits consideration of alternative decisions and predictions of what might have happened with each alternative

c. Plans with the student for his teaching

...provides background for student's planning
....solicits ideas from the student
....pushes ideas far enough to permit concrete planning by the student
..by soliciting, responding, and reacting
..by structuring the situation to cause the student to obtain additional information, consider other approaches, secure additional

materials, make more detailed plans, etc.

4. Provides realistic, concrete suggestions to the student

a. Offers held

b. Introduces specific information on individuals and groups, on instructional materials, on teaching behavior, and on objectives

c. Reacts

....to feelings of success and failure on the part of the student

....to specific questions calling for evaluation of behavior

....to observations and conclusions by the student

5. Assumes responsibility for verifying communication

   a. Restates questions for clarity and accuracy

   b. Restates comments

   c. Checks understanding through questions of it

   d. Summarizes content and verifies the summary with the student

[1] Margaret Lindsey with a group of student teachers, cooperating teachers and college supervisors, Spring 1965.

Appendix D

Supervisor-Student Teacher Conference
Tapescript, December 9, 1977
Supervisor--H; Student Teacher--S

Code

1a 2a H: I was talking to Ms. P and she indicated that she's interrupted while trying to instruct the children. Do you find that happening too?

S: Most of the time. . . . I only teach science to the whole class. So that's the only time they're interrupted. When I have my small groups, I have them. . . . I take them to a separate room. When I'm teaching science, there will be people coming in with messages, announcements, teachers wanting to take the students elsewhere....

2f H: How do you feel about those interruptions?

S: Being a student teacher, I think it's a lot harder, because I'm not 100 percent sure of myself. It's not as if I've been teaching all day long, so that when I get up there I'm a little nervous to begin with so when all of a sudden things start. . . . When the interruptions occur, I guess everybody always has it in mind that you're going to have a lesson and no one is going to come in. Depending upon what kind of interruption it is, it can normally--I can get back into it. If it's other children coming in. . . all of a sudden your mind just goes somewhere else, and sometimes the Special Ed. children just come in....Today they were all over the fourth floor. But, if it's an announcement over the P.A. system, or if someone quietly coming in and handing something to Ms. P--that I can usually handle. They get a little distracted, but not much. But when it's other people coming in, then the kids get very distracted. . . .

2A H: How much time would you say you lose when people actually come into the classroom?

S: Well, out of a 45 minute lesson, you teach less than 30 minutes. . . . At least 15 minutes of interruptions...even if it's just the children dropping books themselves. Of it the kids say, "I don't know what page," or "I don't know what's going on....

When the kids have been at another lab...and say they've lost the first few minutes of the lesson, they never know what page or what book....it takes up time before we can get back into the lesson.

1b
2a H: I'd like to talk to you about a few other things...but now about the lesson itself. Where did you get the idea for the three dimensional decoration?

S: In a course I had with Dr. W.

2a H: Why did you select that particular item?

S: . . . because it seemed to be easy things for children to do and they were nice looking. There were others that were very nice in the book I used...but it looked as if there were too many things to do and we didn't have the supplies. If we try to get the supplies from the woman who has them, she insists that we have to fill out a form and asks lots of questions which are discouraging...so much bother...I'd rather do it myself.

2a H: The fact that you had prepared the lesson. . .
you have prepared the paper. You had thought
to get the proper scissors. . . and that you had
one for each child was very good instead of
having the pupils share them was very good.
4b The fact that you had remembered these was
just fine. It shows some concern for the items
and for the process of things get done, as well
as making sure that each child had some
satisfaction.

5b I liked your idea of the three dimensional
1b object. When you went to explain that, I had
hoped that you might have done a little more
4b with that...It was a fine concept to bring in. As
well as having an art lesson, you might as well
2a bring in these concepts. But what were the
three dimensions...?

S: I know it's height, width, and thickness. . . .

3a H: Right. . . .

S: But I didn't say that. . . .

2d H: Do you remember what you said?

S: I said height, width. . . .

3a H: You said height, width and length. . . .

S: I showed them this way, this way and this way . . . .

3a H: Right. . . that was fine. It's no great tragedy.

S: The point was, I wasn't going to bring out the three dimensional part, then all of a sudden, when I said the three dimensions, I think the kids may not know what I'm talking about...I realized I uh, oh, I better talk about that.

1a H: That's something for you to think about, Mary,
because while you're doing something and
looking for the outcome, you might want to
think of different things, different ideas such as
the three dimensions that can be integrated
4a within that setting and give the children some
more learnings. Learning doesn't have to be
on a talk of "three dimensions" but rather a way
of saying...This is my product...what processes
of learning can I be using to get to that product.
To think in terms of the process as part of
your goal. So They're going to learn how to do

this beautiful thing. As well as that, they can be
5b learning other things. I was quite excited when
6b you started talking about the other
dimensions. You got about three quarters of
the way with it...but then it was dropped. I
would not leave that alone...I would say more
about the three dimensions.

Code **Middle Section**

1a **H:** Making the ornament is probably the least important thing that happens....The most important thing is that the kids get some satisfaction...so that they participate. If you get them to participate to a great extent then, then that's just fine.

5b What I liked was the pacing...getting them involved without a set of half hour directions for them to deal with. They were off and running within ten minutes of the directions...simple, clear...you had samples on the board. You showed them how to cut the paper...I didn't see anyone who looked confused, so it was well thought out.

S: I wasn't sure that it would work out like that...I didn't want them copying.

4b **H:** It's a difficult situation. If you show a sample, you might find many children imitating.

S: Explaining the cutting would have been very difficult without showing them something....

2a H: Mary, did you find any children who had
difficulty doing anything in the drawing line? I
1a think of that because...I had much trouble as a
child since I couldn't draw. I was always
concerned as a teacher that some child was
afraid to put pencil to paper, so I find it
comforting to have something a little more
2a structured. Have you found some children
who had difficulty like that?

S: I went around the room...and helped the kids...Every child did make one.

2a H: Was the child you mentioned satisfied with what she had done?

S: Well, that's a very difficult question. She finished it. She colored it in...It wasn't as if she was jumping for joy about it.

2d H: I guess what I was asking was...could you think
of another way that child could have done
5b something? Can you think of another route...?
I'm not saying that the way you handled it
didn't work...

S: She could have worked with someone else.

6d H: But then it wouldn't have been hers. It's
2d possible, don't misunderstand...but could you
think of something she could do on her own?

S: I'm not sure what you mean....

1b H: I was just thinking it's another way of attacking the problem...perhaps a pattern made out of manila paper which she could use and then change to suit her own ideas.

Code Ending Section

3d H: Working with the other child...that's a good idea. I hadn't thought of that.

S: Especially if it's something large....It would take a long time to color.

5b H: Right.

4d S: You'd also encourage some social interaction.

H: It's nice to have groups of children working on many things if you want the room to look nice.

1a S: There are many ways that one could work with children...some which I wouldn't have thought of. That little bit of structure might be something you might not have thought of, since you have much talent in art.

5b I liked the fact that as the child finished, they came to you and you demonstrated that each one was so nice so the child felt good.

5b I was also terribly pleased that you went around to the kids by helping them.

S: The kids like me to help them.

2a H: Would you like to tell me what kind of teaching you're doing during the average day?

S: I take the kids for science, reading groups...math...It depends on the schedule.

2a H: Do you get a chance to take over the entire class for any block of time?

S: It's difficult, because some of the kids just don't want to pay attention...

2a H: Mary, could you sit down with Ms. P and work out some kind of schedule where you could handle the class for part or a whole morning? Work out procedures to work with the more difficult pupils?

1b Your goal is that one day you will be a teacher and you must feel confident to handle the class day from beginning to end.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Adapted from "A Proposal for a New Program to Develop Leaders in Professional Education," Faculty Committee, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Teachers College, Columbia University.

[2] See Appendix A for statement by the AACTE Bicentennial Commission.

[3] See Appendix B for statement of compentencies required of (school-based) teacher educators.

[4] Joseph Caruso, "Parity in Designing, Conducting, and Evaluating Teacher Educator Programs: A Conceptual Definition" (Ed.D. dissertation, Teahers College, Columbia University, 1974).

[5] See Appendix C for behaviors of supervisors in conferences with student teachers.

[6] Transcript for this conference appears in Appendix D.

[7] Robert B. Howsam, Dean C. Corrigan, George W. Denemark and Robert J. Nash, Educating A Profession (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1976), pp. 105-111 passim.

[8] James M. Cooper, W. Robert Houston, and Allen R. Warner, "Specifying Competencies for School Based Teacher Educators Through Task, Conceptual, and Perceptual Analyses" (Houston, Texas: Teacher Center, University of Houston, 1976), pp. 19-21.